DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 451 600 EA 030 943

AUTHOR	Wylie, Cathy
TITLE	Ten Years On: How Schools View Educational Reform.
INSTITUTION	New Zealand Council for Educational Research, Wellington.
SPONS AGENCY	Ministry of Education, Wellington (New Zealand).
ISBN	ISBN-1-877140-69-4
PUB DATE	1999-00-00
NOTE	222p.
AVAILABLE FROM	New Zealand Council for Educational Research, Distribution Services, P.O. Box 3237, Wellington, New Zealand. Tel: 04-801-5324; Fax: 04-384-7933; e-mail: sales@nzcer.org.nz.
PUB TYPE	Numerical/Quantitative Data (110) -- Reports - Research (143)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Competition; Curriculum Development; Curriculum Evaluation; *Educational Change; *Educational Finance; Elementary Secondary Education; *Faculty Workload; Financial Support; Foreign Countries; Parent Participation; Parent Role; *Professional Development; Public Schools; *Staff Development; Teaching Load; *Working Hours
IDENTIFIERS	*New Zealand

ABSTRACT

This report describes the findings of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research's 1999 national survey, in its series looking at the impact of educational reform on primary and intermediate schools. In 1989 reforms were enacted that abolished the Department of Education and began elections for boards of trustees who took responsibility for each school as an individual entity. The report covers such areas as funding, staffing, advisory services and professional development, boards of trustees, workload issues, curriculum, parental satisfaction, parental involvement in schools, increasing competition between schools, and key issues for people in schools. A summary of the main gains of the past decade is also given. The main educational issues for people in schools, including parents, remain resource-based. The main source of dissatisfaction for people in schools is workload and paperwork required by decentralization. The reforms were intended to improve the learning outcomes for children from low-income homes, and Maori children. These children are still underperforming others, on average, and the schools that serve them have gained least, often losing students. It is difficult to say if student achievement as a whole has benefited from the shift to school self-management. Parental satisfaction remains high. Another gain from reform is constructive partnerships that have been formed through the boards of trustees and school professionals. Appendixes cover characteristics of survey responses and sources of information and advice. (Contains 50 references.) (DFR)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

TEN YEARS ON:

HOW SCHOOLS VIEW EDUCATIONAL REFORM

CATHY WYLIE

1999

ED 451 600

NEW ZEALAND COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
B. Webber
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

EA 030943

TEN YEARS ON:

HOW SCHOOLS VIEW EDUCATIONAL REFORM

CATHY WYLIE

NEW ZEALAND COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Wellington
1999

New Zealand Council for Educational Research
P O Box 3237
Wellington
New Zealand

© NZCER, 1999

ISBN 1-877140-69-4

Distributed by NZCER Distribution Services
P O Box 3237
Wellington
New Zealand

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS xiii
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY xv
Funding xv
Staffing xv
Advice and Professional Development xvi
Boards of Trustees xvi
Workload Issues xvii
Curriculum xviii
Parental Satisfaction xix
Parental Involvement in Schools xix
Increasing competition between schools xx
Issues for people in schools xx
Looking back and looking forward xx
1 INTRODUCTION 1
The Aims of Decentralisation 2
Results from the Previous NZCER Surveys 3
1989 Survey 3
1990 Survey 3
1991 Survey 3
1993 Survey 4
1996 Survey 4
2 SURVEY DESIGN AND ANALYSIS 5
Response Profiles 5
Principals 5
Trustees 6
Parents 6
Teachers 6
Analysis 7
Terms Used in the Report 8
3 FUNDING 9
Adequacy of Government Funding 10
Dealing with Financial Issues 11
Seeking Other Sources of Funding 11
Fully Funded Option for Teachers' Salaries 12
Local Fundraising 12
School Fees/Donations 16
Balancing the Books 17
Parents' Estimates of Money Spent on Their Child's Education 18
Summary 18

4 STAFFING 21
Class Size 21
Teaching Staff 23
How Adequate Is Present Staffing? 23
Employment of Teaching Staff Above Entitlement 23
Teacher Turnover 24
Principals' and Teachers' Employment Status 25
Principals 25
Use of Supplementary Grants 26
Teachers 27
Trustee Support for National Collective Contracts 27
Appointing Teachers 28
Teaching Supply 28
The Employment of Non-registered Teachers 29
Non-registered Teachers 30
Limited Authority Teachers 30
Contact with the Teacher Registration Board 30
Relieving Teachers 31
Teacherless Classes 31
Provisionally Registered Teachers 32
Use of the 0.2 Teaching Component To Support Provisionally Registered Teachers 32
Principals' and Teachers' Careers 33
Principals 33
Principal Turnover 1989–1999 34
Teachers' Careers 34
Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions of Their Position in Five Years 36
Teachers 36
Principals 36
Support Staff 37
Use of the Community Wage Scheme 39
Support Staff in the Classroom 39
Operational/Personnel Innovation 40
Summary 41
5 PROPERTY 43
Adequacy of School Buildings and Grounds 44
Trustee Perspectives 45
Vandalism 45
Teacher Perspectives 45
Are People in Schools Interested in Taking Full Responsibility for Property? 46
Summary 47
6 ADVICE, INFORMATION, AND SUPPORT 49
Schools' Access to Advice 49

School Sources of Information and Advice 51
Principals' Contact with Each Other 51
Teachers' Sources of Information and Advice 52
Teacher Collegiality 54
Advisers/Teacher Support Service 55
Dealing with Curriculum or Management Problems 55
Dealing with Curriculum Problems 56
Dealing with Management Problems or Issues 56
Trustees' Sources of Advice and Information 57
Contact Between Trustees 57
Use of the NZ School Trustees Association 58
Other Services 59
Payroll Service 59
Maintenance—Multi-year Contracts 59
Summary 59
7 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING 61
Principals' Professional Development 61
Teachers' Professional Development 64
Trustees' Training 67
Summary 69
8 SCHOOL BOARD COMPOSITION 71
Who Are the Trustees? 71
Gender 71
Age 71
Ethnicity 72
Education 72
Socioeconomic Status 73
Trustees' Responsibilities on their Board 73
Turnover of School Trustees 75
Co-option 76
Board Size 77
Non-parents on Boards 78
Is There a Call to Change Board Composition? 78
Principals as Voting Members of Boards 78
Interest in School Clusters 79
Amalgamation 80
Summary 80
9 PARENT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT 83
Parental Involvement in Schools 83
Issues Affecting Involvement 83
Parental Help in Classrooms—Teachers' Perspectives 85
Satisfaction With the Level of Parental Involvement 85

Parents 85
Trustees 86
Principals 86
Community Consultation 88
Issues Parents Raise With Their School Boards 89
Consultation with Maori 90
Support from the Community 91
Summary 92
10 SCHOOL ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS 93
Views of the Key Element in the School Trustee's Role 93
What Boards Spend Their Time On 94
Should Trustees Do More, Or Less? 95
Relationships Between School Boards and Principals 96
School Boards and Staff 96
Relations Between Principals and School Staff 99
Teachers' Access to Information and Their Part in School Decision Making 100
Working Relations Between Trustees 101
Board Responses to Conflict or Difficulty 101
Boards as Employers 101
Principal Performance Appraisal 102
Staff Appraisal 102
Board Responses to Industrial Relations Issues 104
How Boards Are Doing 104
Issues Facing School Boards 106
Summary 108
11 WORKLOADS, MORALE, AND SATISFACTION 111
Principals' Workloads 111
Sources of Principals' Job Satisfaction 112
Sources of Principals' Job Dissatisfaction 113
Achievements 114
Principals' Morale 116
Teachers' Workloads 117
Teachers' Morale 118
Teachers' Job Satisfaction 119
Non-contact Time 120
Responsibilities Outside the Classroom 121
Trustees' Workloads 123
Trustees' Satisfactions and Dissatisfactions With Their Role 124
Summary 125

12 CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT 127
Teachers' Reports of Curriculum Change 128
Teachers' Confidence in Their Ability to Cover the Curriculum and Achievement Objectives 130
Assessment 133
Views on National Standards 136
Resources 138
Teachers' Perspectives 138
Principals' Perspectives 139
Curriculum Initiatives 140
Do Communities Want Curriculum Change? 141
The Roles of Trustees and Parents in the School Curriculum 142
Summary 142
13 SCHOOL PLANNING, POLICIES, AND PROVISION 145
Charters 145
School Development/Strategic Plans 147
School Decision Making 147
Parental Involvement in Policy Making 148
Board Responses to Major Policy Decisions 149
School Responsiveness to Different Students 149
Changes in Assessment, Reporting, and School Presentation 150
Innovations in Schools 151
Truancy 153
Summary 153
14 ROLL CHANGES AND COMPETITION 155
Patterns in Primary School Roll Changes 155
Roll Stability 156
Reasons for Changes in School Rolls 156
School Capacity 157
Enrolment Schemes 158
Student Turnover 158
Competition Between Schools 159
Summary 160
15 PARENTS AND SCHOOLS 163
Parental Contact With the School 163
Parental Contact With Their Child's Teacher 163
Parental Discussions of Their Child's Report With the Teacher 165
Do Parents Have Enough Contact With Their Child's Teacher? 165
Parental Contact With the Principal 166
Do Parents Have Enough Contact With Their School's Principal? 167
Parental Contact with the Board of Trustees 168
Do Parents Feel They Have Enough Contact With Their School's Board Of Trustees? 169

Trustees' Perspectives on Their Contact With Parents 169
Parents' Access to Information 171
Do Parents Want More Information About Their Child's School? 171
Do Parents Want More Information About Their Child's School Progress? 171
Parental Satisfaction With the Quality of Their Child's Schooling 172
Do Parents Want More Say In Their Child's School? 173
Parental Choice of School 173
Summary 175
16 SCHOOLS AND GOVERNMENT 177
Underlying Tensions 177
To Whom Do People in Schools Feel Responsible? 178
Relations With the Ministry of Education 179
Satisfaction With the Ministry of Education 179
Schools' Actions To Improve Government Funding or Staffing 180
Education Review Office 181
Schools' Self-review 183
Special Education 2000 183
Use of the Specialist Education Services 184
Views of the Regulatory Review 185
The Education Issues as People in Schools See Them 186
What Should Be Given Priority By Government? The Schools' View 189
Summary 191
17 MORE OF THE SAME? 193
The More Things Change . . . 193
Harnessing the Promise of School Self-management 194
In the United States 194
In England 195
What kind of school self-management do schools need to support school self-development 195
What Can We Reasonably Expect of Schools? 196
The Regulatory Review 197
Twenty Years On? 198
REFERENCES 199
APPENDIX 1—CHARACTERISTICS OF SURVEY RESPONSES 203
APPENDIX 2—SOURCES OF INFORMATION AND ADVICE 207

LIST OF TABLES

1 Additional Funding Sought by Schools 11
2 Total Amount of Funds Raised Locally in a Year 13
3 Teachers' Reasons for Leaving Their School 25
4 Use of Supplementary Grant 26
5 Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Experiences of the Teacher Registration Board 31
6 Length of Teaching Experience 35
7 Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Position in Five Years 36
9 Need for Additional Support Staff Hours 37
10 Support Staff Hours 38
11 Adequacy of Schools' Accommodation 44
12 Schools' Access to Useful Advice 50
13 Principals' Contact with Their Colleagues 52
14 Source of Teachers' Most Useful Ideas for Teaching Programme in Last Two Years 53
15 Topics on Which Teachers Have Unmet Needs for Advice 53
16 Topics on Which Teachers Identify Their School Needs Advice 54
17 Teacher Collegiality 54
18 Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Experiences of the Advisers/Teacher Support Services 55
19 Sources Principals Contact for Help with Problems 56
20 Sources of Trustees' Advice or Support 57
21 Trustees' Views of the NZ School Trustees Association Services 58
22 Sources of Principals' Professional Development 62
23 Areas of Principals' Professional Development 63
24 Principals' Priorities for Their Professional Development 64
25 Teachers' Professional Development 1999 65
26 Teachers' Professional Development in Their Own Time 67
27 Topics in Which Trustees Would Like Training 68
28 Highest Education Qualification of Parents and Trustees 72
29 Trustees' and Parents' Socioeconomic Status 73
30 Experience and Skills on Boards 74
31 Co-opted Trustees' Responsibilities 77
32 School Board Interest in Joining Formal Cluster of Schools 79
33 Interest in Amalgamation with Another Local School or Schools. 80
34 Parental Involvement in Their Child's School 83
35 Parental Help in Classrooms 85
36 Activities in Which Trustees Would Like To See More Parent Involvement 86
37 Methods Used in Board Consultations with its School Community 88
38 Issues Raised by Parents with Their School's Board of Trustees 89
39 Consultations with MaoriCommunity by Topic and Proportion of Maori Enrolment at the School 90

40 Methods of Board Consultation with Its Maori Community 91
41 Principal and Trustee Perceptions of the Main Element in the Role of the School Trustee ... 94
42 Trustees' Ranking of Time Spent on Major Board Activities by Their Board 94
43 Views of the Relationship Between Principals and Their School Boards 96
44 Trustees' Contact with Their School's Teachers 97
45 Teachers' Contact with Their School's Trustees 97
46 Views of the Relationship Between School Staff and Their School Board 98
47 Teachers' Contact with Staff Representative on the Board of Trustees 99
48 Views of the Relationship between Principal and School Staff 99
49 Teachers' Part in School Decision Making 100
50 Views of the Working Relations Between Trustees 101
51 Use Made of Teacher Appraisals 103
52 Trustees' Views of Success of Their Board's Dealing with Problems/Issues 105
53 Views of How Board Is Doing 1999 105
54 Trustees' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board 107
55 Principals' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board 107
56 Teachers' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board 108
57 Parents' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board 108
58 Principals' Average Work Hours per Week 111
59 Allocation of Principals' Time 112
60 Three Things Principals Would Change About Their Work 114
61 Principals' Main Achievements. 1997–1999 115
62 Teachers' Hours On Work Outside Class Hours 117
63 Average Hours per Week of Teachers' Outside-class Time Given to Key Teaching and Administrative Tasks 118
64 Teachers' Desired Changes in Their Work 120
65 Teachers' Use of Non-teaching Time 121
66 Teachers' School Responsibilities 122
67 Teachers' Non-classroom Responsibilities 123
68 Sources of Trustees' Satisfaction With Their Work 124
69 Reasons for Curriculum Changes 128
70 Changes to Curriculum 129
71 Teachers' Confidence in Their Ability To Cover the Curriculum 130
72 Teaching Resources—Adequacy 130
73 Teaching Resources—Quality 131
74 Assessment 131
75 Assessment Resources—Adequacy 131
76 Assessment Resources—Quality 132
77 Teachers' Current Assessment Practices 134
78 Teachers' Use of Assessment 135
79 Teachers' Views of the Inadequacy of Teaching Materials 139
80 Adequacy of Schools' Equipment and Materials—Principals' Views 140

81 Trustees' Perceptions of Their Board's Role in School Curriculum and Assessment 142
82 Views on Effects of School Charters within School 146
83 Principals' Perception of Teachers, Board of Trustees, and Parent Participation in School Decision Making 148
84 Programmes or Policies To Counter Disadvantage 149
85 Changes in Assessment, Reporting, and School Presentation as a Result of the Education Reforms 151
86 Innovations in Primary Schools 1996–1999 152
87 Views of Relations with Other Schools 159
88 Parents' Contact With Child's Teacher 164
89 Parents' Contact with School Principal 166
90 Parents' Contact with School's Board of Trustees 168
91 Trustees' Contact With Parents at Their School 170
92 Parental Views on Their Access to Information 171
93 Steps Taken by Schools To Get Satisfactory Answers From the Ministry of Education on Funding, Property, and Staffing 181
94 Areas of School Change After ERO Reviews 182
95 Problems Experienced With the SE 2000 Policy (Mid-1999) 184
96 Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Experiences of SES 185
97 Parents' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education 186
98 Teachers' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education 187
99 Trustees' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education 188
100 Principals' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education 188
101 Principals 203
102 Teachers 204
103 Trustees 205
104 Representativeness of Parental Response by School Characteristics 206
105 School Sources of Information and Advice 1999(1) 207
106 School Sources of Information and Advice 1999(2) 208
107 School Sources of Information and Advice 1999(3) 209
108 School Sources of Information and Advice 1999 (4) Staffing/Human Resources Management 209
109 Teachers' Three Major Sources of Advice and Information 210

LIST OF FIGURES

1 Proportion of Principals and Trustees Who Find Their Government Funding Inadequate ... 10
2 Maori Enrolment
Location ... 14
Roll Size ... 14
Full (Bulk) Funding ... 14
Decile ... 15
3 School Fee per Child—Decile ... 16
4 School Fee per Child—Proportion of Maori Enrolment ... 16
5 Class Size in 1999 ... 22
6 Parental Satisfaction with Their Child's Class Size ... 22
7 Perceptions of Staffing Adequacy 1993–1999 ... 23
8 Principals' Ages ... 33
9 Teachers' Use of Support Staff in Classrooms ... 40
10 Sources of Teachers' Most Useful Advice and Preferred Sources ... 66
11 Prinicipals' Satisfaction with the Level of Parental Help in their School ... 87
12 Trustee Involvement in School ... 95
13 Views on National Minimum Achievement Standards for Use in Reporting to Government and Parents ... 137
14 Trustees', Principals' and Teachers' Average Rankings of Their Responsibility ... 178
15 Satisfaction With Ministry of Education ... 179
16 School Priorities for Government Attention to Education Issues ... 190

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank those who work in, for, and with schools on behalf of the country's children: the principal, trustees, teachers and parents who gave some of their often hard-pressed time to participating in this survey.

I am grateful for those who discussed with me the issues and questions which might be included in this survey, and who offered feedback on the draft questionnaires, from the Ministry of Education, NZEI, NZ School Trustees Association, the NZ Principals' Association, and fellow researchers and educationalists, particularly Ruth Mansell. The education sector organisations also publicised and supported the survey in their publications for members, NZEI arranged for a good range of schools to trial the draft questionnaires and the Ministry of Education provided information on the schools in the sample and other relevant material.

Feedback from those who trialled the questionnaires was invaluable in improving them.

The parental sample was drawn at 33 schools, half of whom sent out the questionnaires themselves. Many thanks to the people at these schools, principals and support staff, who ensured that this process went smoothly.

My thanks also to the NZCER staff who worked on the study, often within tight time-frames: Roberta Tiatia, who took over responsibility for the organisation of the questionnaire send-out and return from Gloria Hansen, did the final wordprocessing of the report, and also worked on the SAS analysis, Barb Bishop, who managed the data-entry and data-analysis process, and Fay Swann who edited the report.

I am also grateful to Richard Watkins and Ruth Mansell whose reviews of the draft of this report helped to improve it.

Finally, this research was funded through the Ministry of Education's support for NZCER.

Cathy Wylie

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

It is ten years since the former Department of Education was abolished and the first elections were held for boards of trustees to take responsibility for each school as an individual entity, ushering in the era of *Tomorrow's Schools*. This report describes the findings of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research's 1999 national survey in its series looking at the impact of these reforms for primary and intermediate schools, and looks back to its first surveys on the reforms in 1989 and 1990 to see what change the decade has brought.

Here are the key findings and themes of the report.

Funding

- Most principals continued to find government funding inadequate to meet their school's needs, despite recent and real increases to government operational funding. That this is so, even for schools which do better than others in raising money from their school community (high decile, low Maori enrolment, and fully funded schools), indicates that there are difficulties across the board in matching revenue with expectations, both government and locally generated.
- Primary schools have increased their local fundraising substantially over the decade: in 1999, for example, 38 percent of schools raised over $15,501, compared with 10 percent in 1989. School fees also rose over the decade: 69 percent of primary schools asked for more than $20 a child in 1999, compared with 29 percent in 1989.
- Without local fundraising, and continuing efforts by schools to secure additional funding, mainly from the Ministry of Education, but also, and increasingly, from corporate organisations and philanthropic trusts, most schools would appear unable to cover all their existing costs, and would have to cut back more than they currently do, or operate at a deficit.
- Funding and property remain the two main issues that boards of trustees spend their time on.

Staffing

- Class sizes are lower: only 13 percent now have 30 or more students, half the figure in 1996. Lower class sizes reflect improved government funding for staffing which began in 1996, and the fact that over half the schools in the survey employed more teaching staff than their entitlement, using locally raised funds or their operational grant.
- Schools in low-income areas or with high Maori enrolment were more likely to turn to unqualified staff, and to have classes without teachers, and they had higher staff turnover. These schools and rural schools have had difficulty finding suitable staff all through the last decade, indicating some underlying problems of teacher supply, which individual schools cannot solve on their own.
- Almost half the schools had at least one provisionally registered (beginning) teacher. Eighty-seven percent of the principals of these schools were satisfied with the quality of their training.

They would like them to have more preparation in some area, particularly behaviour management, assessment, setting up a classroom, reading, and mathematics.

- Over half the schools continue to want more support staffing than they can afford, although their wants are modest.
- The average primary school has had two to three principals over the last decade. Schools with higher turnover tend to have teaching principals, are in rural areas, and have small rolls.

Advice and Professional Development

- Much of the advice and information used by people in schools comes free and informally, from the central government agencies, from the government-funded advisory services and NZSTA services, and from teacher and principal representative organisations. Few schools were buying advice on a user-pays basis.
- Principals have ceased to be a major source of advice and information for teachers, apart from employment-related matters. Teachers have become more reliant on their colleagues at the same school; they have less access to colleagues at other schools—one of the costs of the reforms. Most teachers at the same school continue to provide each other with collegial support, sharing resources as well as information.
- It is clear that NZSTA plays an important role for school trustees in terms of providing information and advice. All but a few trustees support the extension of existing government funding for NZSTA to provide them with a general support service.
- The advisory service was the prime source of principals' and teachers' professional development, and a substantial source of their informal advice and information. Yet this service is likely to be dismantled next year, with its funding going instead to school operational grants. It is not clear that shifting the funding will provide all schools with the same access to advice and professional development that they currently enjoy, because few schools could afford to pay for their existing professional development from their own funds alone.
- Many principals and teachers contribute their own time and money to professional development, with more doing so in school holidays than before. Teachers remain focused on curriculum and pedagogy; principals are more likely to be focusing on management or IT.

Boards of Trustees

- Almost half the present primary school trustees joined their board at the last general election for trustees, in 1998. There were fewer resignations from boards than in 1996, but also less replacement of those who did leave, and less use of co-option to bring in additional expertise. Trustees were generally confident that they had the expertise they needed, but less so for legal and information technology skills, which are among the more expensive services to purchase.
- There has been a gradual increase in the proportion of women trustees, rising from 44 percent in 1989 to 52 percent in 1998. For the first time, women were as likely as men to be the chair of their board. Trustees were also more representative of parents in terms of socioeconomic

status than in 1989, though not in terms of education. There has been no change in the average size of school boards, or in the proportion that have non-parents on them (41 percent).

- Contrary to the premises of the current regulatory review, few boards of trustees show interest in changing their structure. The survey results show that trustees and principals believe that principals should remain voting members; clusters appeal only if schools can retain their individual identity and governance structures; and amalgamation appeals only to a few schools. Interest is highest in small, rural schools. Support for further shifting of employment-related responsibility to individual schools was higher among trustees than it had been two years ago, but was still low (18 percent).
- Most schools continued to maintain good relations between school staff, and within boards of trustees. If we want to reduce the present level of problems in relations from the 10-15 percent it has been throughout the decade, some new solutions, or better-resourced support and training may be needed.
- Resourcing issues continue to dominate board work. If school staff seek more trustee involvement in their school, it is either or provide practical help, or to gain the kind of understanding of teaching and learning which aid decisions on resource allocation.

Workload Issues

- Workload and paperwork associated with the administrative and reporting work that accompanied decentralisation are the main sources of dissatisfaction for people in schools. It appears that New Zealand primary schools cannot be run without principals working an average of 60 hours a week, no matter what the size of the school.
- Teaching workloads have jumped markedly between 1996 and 1999, to an average work week of 51.5 hours a week, with more time needed for assessment and reporting, and planning classroom work. Forty-one percent of teachers describe their workload as excessive.
- Trustees can also expect to give a half a day a week to their school, on average, again no matter what size the school, or the characteristics of its community.
- Yet principal morale is higher now than three years ago, 72 percent describing it as good or better. Teachers' morale is also somewhat higher, though still lower than principals: 52 percent describing it as good or better. Teachers' morale was related to their own confidence that they could cover the curriculum, and had the resources and support to do so, and to whether they were informed and involved in school decisionmaking. Principals' morale was affected by the quality of relations at the school, particularly between the staff and board, and within the board itself. They were also affected by high workloads, unstable rolls, and having ideas for change that they could not bring about (usually due to lack of money or time).
- Fewer teachers had some non-contact time than in 1989, and not much of this appeared to be spent on the shared planning and development that characterises innovative schools.
- Changes that people in schools would make to improve their workloads were to reduce paperwork and administration. Teachers would also reduce assessment and class size, improve their support, and have more non-teaching time. Many teaching principals would like to become non-teaching principals, or at least reduce the time they spent in the classroom. While

teaching and working with children remains a prime source of satisfaction, trying to carry out the two roles in one job has proven very difficult.

Curriculum

- The main changes in school curriculum over the period of the reforms have been spurred by the introduction of the new national curricula, and associated professional development. Few teachers lack confidence about teaching the areas of the new curriculum statements, with beginning teachers more confident than others about the statements currently being introduced or in draft form. A substantial minority feel more confident, however, about their ability to cover some areas better than others. Teachers are somewhat more confident about their ability to teach the curriculum than assess it.
- Teachers would like more resources, particularly related to assessment, but also specific guides to different curriculum areas. Where they would like to make changes themselves, these largely refer to changes in assessment and resources. This may indicate that most teachers feel they have sufficient latitude in the curriculum and how they teach it. Barriers to their making changes focus on time and money, but also on lack of teaching resources and professional development. Few mentioned the national education guidelines, or the national curriculum.
- Teachers could see some benefits to the increase in their assessment work, mainly in terms of being able to improve their response to individual children's needs. The costs of increased assessment however were in time: to cover the curriculum, to provide individual children with attention during class, and to prepare or plan lessons.
- In response to the new curriculum statements and the need to show evidence of student progress and achievement required by ERO, most teachers appear to have added new assessments to their existing practices, increasing rather than rationalising the number of assessments they use. Most teachers were using some standardised tests; they were also using criteria taken from the curriculum level statements. Spelling tests are much more common now for children in the first three years of school than in 1989.
- Teachers' use of assessment continues to focus on formative uses, to help individual children's learning. Many teachers are also using assessment data to inform their class programme, although more analytic use of assessment data is not yet widespread. About half the teachers were supplying assessment data to be used by those who might make more analytic use of assessment data, their board, and ERO. There has been a steady growth in the proportion of boards of trustees looking at student achievement data in relation to school development.
- While teachers and principals have expressed interest in having national exemplars in assessment, they have opposed national mandatory tests. This survey showed little support from principals in using government-set minimal standards as part of schools' contracts with government, although more so from trustees.
- Around a quarter of the principals thought there was some community interest in making changes to their school programme, with a wide range of things different communities were interested in. Around half the principals also had innovations they would have liked to introduce themselves. Information technology featured prominently. As with others in schools who would like to make changes, time and money are the main barriers. Principals

also mentioned the school buildings. Few mentioned education regulations; indeed the national curriculum statements were seen as more of a barrier to change.

- Most schools have introduced social skills programmes and problem-solving approaches. Around a third now have accelerated learning programmes, teaching based on different learning styles, or thinking skills, and remedial classes in mathematics. Although fully funded schools have been seen as having more flexibility than others, their level of innovation was much the same. It is interesting to consider the kinds of innovations made by schools in the last few years, and to see that many of them, other than structural changes, could also have been made before decentralisation.

Parental Satisfaction

- Most parents were satisfied with the quality of their child's education (84 percent, much the same since 1989). Unlike the findings in previous surveys, the current survey found that Maori parents were just as likely to be satisfied as others, which may indicate a positive change (which could be confirmed by subsequent surveys). However, more Maori parents than Pakeha/European continued to feel that they had not been able to access the school of their first choice. Parents who had not been able to do so were less satisfied with the quality of their child's education, and more likely to want to change something at the school. However, most parents continue to access the school of their first choice (83 percent).
- Few parents felt that the information they received about their child's class programme, or their progress, was poor, although around a third described it as fair rather than good. However, 76 percent of parents were happy with the information they currently received about their child's school progress. Maori and Asian parents would like more information: more detail, more regular reports, or a comparison with national standards.
- Few parents (11 percent) want more of a say in their child's school, with rather more (28 percent) wanting to change something about the school, such as class size, more individual help for children, or more challenging or more academic work. Well-educated parents are more likely to want change, or more information about the school.
- Parents raised fewer issues with their school boards than in 1993. Discipline and health and safety remain the main issues of parent concern.

Parental Involvement in Schools

- Parental contact with school professionals and trustees has declined slightly over the decade, although satisfaction levels with the amount of contact remain much the same.
- Parental involvement in schools has declined rather than increased, as the reforms intended. But factors external to schools appear to provide some explanation, particularly the growth in mothers' employment (linked to the increasing need many families find to have two incomes coming into the home). There has been no increase in the proportion of parents saying they are not involved in their child's school because they feel uncomfortable in it, have not been asked, or feel that they should leave the school to get on with the job.

Those who do feel one of these barriers are more likely to be unemployed or receiving a state benefit, or be Maori.

- Low-decile and high-Maori-enrolment schools remain the schools which receive less parent and community support than others.

Increasing competition between schools

- Thirty-one percent of principals now feel their school is competing with others, up from 21 percent in 1996. However, few schools have only competitive relations with all other local schools. More principals feel that parent or student preferences are the reason for changes in their school roll (31 percent), though general population changes remained the main reason (57 percent).
- One of the costs of increased parental choice of school, has been a preference for schools with low or very low Maori enrolment. The reforms appear to have acted in an unintended manner which has increased ethnic polarisation in primary schools as well as secondary.
- Schools which lost students or found themselves competing with other local schools appeared to be as open to change and willingness to be responsive as others, if not more so. More than others, they had increased their school promotion and marketing (an additional budget cost). They had also endeavoured to meet family needs by providing after-school programmes. They were more likely to have made major changes to their performance management. Yet these efforts did not seem sufficient to reverse trends of decline or halt competition.

Issues for people in schools

- People in schools would like the government to focus more on resourcing, workload, and school support issues than on changes to property or regulations, the current focus of government policy in relation to schools. Few knew much about the current review of regulations, although it had been described in the education sector's newsletters. Most were sceptical about what it would produce, fearing government cost-cutting, although some looked forward to reduced workloads or compliance.
- One of the areas people in schools would like government to give more attention to is special needs provision. Half the principals had experienced problems with the recently introduced SE 2000 policy, which shifted more responsibility and funding to individual schools. Most of these problems are to do with resourcing.
- Only a quarter of the principals, teachers and trustees surveyed felt satisfied with the education sector's inclusion in policy development.

Looking back and looking forward

These can be seen as the main gains of the last decade:

- new partnerships have been formed through the boards of trustees and school professionals, partnerships which usually work well and constructively for the benefit of the students in particular schools.

- over time, the boards of trustees appear to be becoming more representative of parents as a whole in terms of gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status.
- parent satisfaction remains high. The majority of parents report that they get enough information about their child's progress. Though parents leave school decision making to school boards of trustees, few feel they need more say about what happens at the school.
- those who work for schools more often than not enjoy their work, and take pride in seeing students learn and achieve: this enjoyment and pride appear to override the high workloads required to make school self-management work.
- the strong interest in continuing professional development, and the ways in which schools appear to balance local initiatives with national curriculum requirements.
- the gradual development of a focus on school development, and the integration of different aspects of school work so that they might better support each other in relation to school goals.

All these augur well for the future development of New Zealand education.

But these have come at a cost, and some important things have not changed much over the course of the decade. The main educational issues for people in schools, including parents, remain resource-based. The reforms were intended to improve the learning outcomes for children from low-income homes, and Maori children. These children are still under-performing others, on average, and the schools which serve them have gained least, often losing students. It is hard to say if student achievement as a whole has benefited from the shift to school self-management.

The Picot committee reported frustration and powerlessness among school staff in relation to the then Department of Education; that remains true today with the government agencies that replaced the Department, even though those in schools do enjoy the more immediate say they have over many of the decisions they take.

It is probably time to bring together those in schools with those who make policy, to revisit the assumptions behind the reforms in the light of the costs as well as benefits so far, so that ten years from now, there are more benefits, and fewer costs.

1 INTRODUCTION

It is ten years since the former Department of Education was abolished, and its place taken by a more policy-focused Ministry of Education, a review agency to monitor schools (now the Education Review Office), the NZ Qualifications Authority, and a number of other small agencies or crown-owned commercial enterprises dealing with early childhood education services, vocational training, and the publication of educational resources. It is also ten years since the first elections were held for boards of trustees to take responsibility for each school as an individual entity. Between each school and the government agencies, only local offices of the Ministry of Education remained, soon to be amalgamated into fewer regional offices. The education sector's national organisations: the teacher unions, principals' groups, and the government-subsidised New Zealand School Trustees Association(NZSTA) have also represented school views to government.

The official history of the progress of this radical decentralisation of educational administration provided a favourable account (Butterworth & Butterworth 1998). NZSTA celebrated the first decade of boards of trustees with a tenth birthday party at which the Minister of Education presented the discussion document of a regulatory review which may provide the basis for substantial changes to New Zealand's education system, or may simply result in marginal changes. The educational research community's conference in June 1999, focusing on the impact of the reforms at school and systemic level, generally drew less optimistic conclusions than either the official government or NZSTA views (Thrupp, 1999b). The Minister of Education's annual report for 1998, presented to Parliament in June 1999, showed that, at the systemic level, the achievement gaps between Maori and non-Maori continued to be evident, and that the schools which were struggling to retain rolls, or which needed external intervention in the form of additional Ministry of Education support, were mainly those which served the disadvantaged—children from low-income families. While decentralisation to school level works at one level — schools keep going, professionals and trustees mostly work respectfully with each other for the good of their school —at another level, its costs in workload and pressure have been great, and decentalisation has yet to bear ripe fruit.

NZCER has been monitoring the impact of the reforms (initially known as *Tomorrow's Schools*) on primary and intermediate schools since 1989, through a series of national surveys of people at schools: principals, trustees, teachers, and parents. This report describes the results of our latest survey, in June-July 1999, and compares the present picture of what is happening in New Zealand's primary schools and how people feel about it, with what was happening in 1989, and at the points in the decade where we undertook surveys.[1]

---

[1] Reported in Wylie, C. *The Impact of Tomorrow's Schools in Primary Schools and Intermediates 1989; The Impact of Tomorrow's Schools in Primary Schools and Intermediates 1990; The Impact of Tomorrow's Schools in Primary Schools and Intermediates 1991; Self-Managing Schools in New Zealand: the fifth year; Self-Managing Schools Seven Years On – what have we learnt?* All published by NZCER, Wellington.

The Aims of Decentralisation

The changes to education administration in New Zealand were part and parcel of radical public sector reform which focused on more managerial autonomy, but within tighter accountability frameworks, ostensibly based on private enterprise practice. Policy and operations were separated, on the presumption that this would improve clarity and accountability, and the sector moved to an emphasis on contracts, and performance measurement in terms of pre-specified outputs (Boston, 1991). In other sectors of core government provision, such as health, this led to the exclusion of elected boards, and the commercialisation of services, which were set in competitive relations with each other to win contracts from the same purchaser, the government.

Education reforms were somewhat different. While they were built on individual units acting autonomously, two other concerns were at work: a desire to increase the partnership between home and school (a move which began in the 1970s and was one of the main recommendations of the 1985 Curriculum Review), and a desire to improve educational opportunity and achievement for disadvantaged groups, particularly Maori and children from low-income homes.

Taken together, this resulted in school boards composed mainly of parents elected, originally, by other parents; and the inclusion of equity objectives in the charters which were schools' versions of contracts. It also resulted in these charters having much more latitude in content and accountability than performance or purchase agreements in the rest of the public sector.

With a change of government in 1990, more emphasis was put on competition between schools, with the abolition of school enrolment zones, which had allocated school places where schools had fewer places than applicants on the basis of residential proximity, with a random ballot for any places remaining. This was intended to increase parental choice of school.

School funding was increasingly based on per-student formulas, making every student "translatable" into a dollar value to schools; and the Education Review Office (ERO) assumed a more prominent role as a national critic of schools' performance.

What were these changes aimed at? While focusing on administration, the reforms were undertaken to improve educational achievement, by making teachers more accountable, improving parental involvement in schools, making schools more responsive to their local community, and therefore more innovative, and more attractive to groups which were missing out, particularly Maori and children from low-income homes.

The NZCER surveys have attempted to evaluate the reforms in their own terms, in the light of these initial goals. The government has reiterated in the last few years the goal of reducing and eventually eliminating the educational disparities of Maori.

They also aim to provide a description of the unfolding of these reforms, and what they have meant for those in schools, who are the focus of the shifting of responsibilities.

Along the way, information has been gathered that might inform current policy debates in the education sector. In this survey, questions have been asked related to the regulatory review, since this was undertaken on an unresearched presumption of a desire for change by schools. Other questions have come from the results of the previous surveys, particularly relating to the relative roles of schools and government.

Results from the Previous NZCER Surveys

1989 Survey

The 1989 results showed that the reforms were greeted with a mixture of caution and interest. Parental satisfaction with education was already high, and most parents had had some involvement in their child's school before the reforms began. Although people in schools were working hard to make the reforms work, they were often sceptical about their long-term effects. They were more interested in holding on to what they already had, rather than wanting to make changes.

1990 Survey

Hard work was required at school level to make school self-management a reality, as the results of the 1990 survey showed. Tensions also existed between people in schools and those in the newly created government departments, who were also engaged in learning new roles. The first and second years of the reforms produced a constant stream of deadlines. These deadlines kept changing, as did requirements, in the development of the charters which were to define the responsibilities of school and government, and in the development of school budgets which would be auditable in relatively standard forms for government departments to analyse.

Such a wave of paperwork, coupled with government interest in giving schools unwanted and unsought responsibilities (mainly in the form of bulk funding of teachers' salaries), created some suspicion and cynicism amongst trustees and school staff about the reality of partnership between schools and government. But at school level, partnership was more often than not the reality, with perhaps more overlapping of roles and relationships than the reform architects had envisaged.

Most of those who worked in schools during this time developed confidence in the process they were pioneering. There were few who called for a return to the old system: principals and trustees showed enjoyment in their ability to make decisions concerning their school. However, initial misgivings about adequate resourcing and growing inequity between schools remained. There were indications emerging in the 1990 survey that schools in low income communities, or with high Māori enrolment, were less able than other schools to draw on the parental and community financial, time, and skill resources called for by the devolution of responsibility to school level.

1991 Survey

The 1991 survey showed that the pace of reform had slowed but the high workloads reached in 1990 continued. Financial and administrative systems were in place. Government did not implement the inclusion of teacher salaries into operational grants, thus seeming to heed the resistance to this which came from trustees and teachers alike. Some of the original fears voiced at the start of the reforms were receding. Professionals *could* work in partnership with parents on boards, which had greater powers than school committees. People with narrow educational views did not dominate boards of trustees, though there were isolated instances where trustees attempted to remove widely used books they personally thought unsuitable. Possibly because

teaching salaries were kept separate from operational grants, and pay was not performance based, teachers continued to work co-operatively, and to enjoy good relations with trustees. There was still little sign of innovation in the work of schools, teaching, and learning, however, and there were stronger indications that school resourcing was becoming more dependent on the economic circumstances of school communities.

1993 Survey

The 1993 survey found continuing partnership and general goodwill between professionals and lay people, embedded in the ways people in schools felt things should work. Most school-based problems were resolved at the school, but often with the help of people outside the school, particularly the national organisations for teachers and trustees. Nonetheless, schools remained in need of support, information, and training.

Workloads remained high, and were increasingly burdensome. Principals felt distracted by their administrative work. Teacher morale was sagging.

Yet principals and teachers also felt, for the first time in this series of surveys, that the reforms could be linked to improvements in their classrooms—in their teaching content, style, and the quality of children's learning. These changes in turn were linked with the central introduction of the new curriculum framework, and its associated professional development. They were not linked so much to school self-management or decentralisation. Where curriculum innovation occurred, it was in line with the new curriculum.

The ways in which school self-management did appear to make a positive contribution to children's learning appeared to be in teachers needing to make regular reports on the school programme to their school board, in being able to answer the board's questions about the programme and its links with student progress and other aspects of school life, and in the gradual intertwining of school and staff development.

Thus the 1993 survey identified both gains, and costs.

It also showed that the differences in educational opportunities and achievement, which the reforms were designed to reduce, remained unchanged; school-based management alone did not seem able to reduce these differences or improve achievement.

It found that the money parents gave to schools was increasing, as was school fundraising. But so was a growing sense that schools could not provide sufficient money themselves. More principals and trustees thought that their government funding was inadequate. They also felt more distant from government, and more frustrated that their concerns and views were either ignored, or resented.

1996 Survey

All those trends continued in 1996, even though the government began to improve resourcing, started to take a more active role in planning, slowed the pace of curriculum implementation, acknowledged the importance of its role in supporting professional development for the curriculum, and began to provide some support to schools which were experiencing financial difficulties, unsustainable rolls, or clashes within boards, or between boards and principals, or school staff.

2 SURVEY DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

This is the sixth NZCER national survey of the impact of the educational reforms. Previous surveys were all carried out on a base sample of 239 schools, a 10.5 percent sample of all New Zealand's non-private primary and intermediate schools in 1989. The sample was a stratified random one, proportionally representative of the overall national totals—for 1989—for type of school, location of school, roll size, proportion of Maori enrolment, and whether state or state-integrated.

However, by 1999, the school profile had changed sufficiently to warrant shifting to a new sample base in order to provide nationally representative data. Given the high workloads of people in schools, it also made sense not to be returning to some of the people who had taken part in a number of the previous surveys. A larger sample size would also widen the scope of the analysis.

A larger sample of 350 mainstream schools[2] was chosen, on the same basis as the previous sample, that is, a stratified random sample of schools. One school declined to take part, leaving 349 schools in the sample. All principals at these schools were sent questionnaires, and at each school two trustees' names were randomly drawn, and one to three teachers' names, depending on the size of the school. The parent sample was drawn from 33 schools, randomly chosen to provided a cross section of the school characteristics of the total sample.

Appendix 1 sets out the characteristics of primary schools nationwide, the characteristics of the 1999 survey sample of 349 schools, and the school characteristics of participants. It shows that on the whole, the sample and responses are broadly representative of primary schools nationwide. There is some under-representation of intermediates, decile 1–2 schools, and those in provincial cities or small towns for principals. Teachers' responses provide some over-representation of city schools, contributing schools, those with rolls over 300, decile 9–10 schools, and those with very low Maori enrolment. Trustees from city schools, decile 1–2 schools, state-integrated schools, and those with rolls over 300 are under-represented. Parents who participated provide an over-representation (in terms of student numbers at schools) of parents at city schools, schools with low Maori enrolment, intermediates (and thus schools with 500 or more students), and decile 3–4 schools.

Response Profiles

Principals

The overall response rate for principals was 75 percent, from 262 of the 349 schools in the survey sample.

Teaching principals comprised 55 percent of those responding. Thirty-eight percent of the principals were female, close to the 35 percent in the Ministry of Education 1998 teacher census. The proportion of women principals has been gradually increasing over the decade: in 1993 it was

[2] Kura kaupapa Maori were not included in the sample.

28 percent. Interestingly, the 1998 teacher census figures show that 48 percent of Maori principals were female.

Most of the principals responding (90 percent)were Pakeha/European, 5 percent were Maori, and 1 percent Asian. There were too few non-Pakeha principals to analyse responses by ethnicity.

Fifteen percent of the principals responding had become principals in the last two years. A further 16 percent had served between three and five years, 24 percent between six to ten years, 18 percent between 11 and 15 years, and 25 percent for more than 15 years. This picture is very similar to the figures for the 1996 NZCER survey.

Compared with the 1993 and 1996 surveys, there were fewer principals aged below 40, 11 percent compared with 17 percent in 1996, and slightly more aged in their fifties (41 percent compared with 34 percent). Forty-two percent of the principals responding were in their forties, and 5 percent in their sixties.

Trustees

Fifty-four percent of the 698 trustees who were sent questionnaires responded, slightly down on 1996 figures. As described in chapter 8, they tended to be better educated than the parents who responded, and more likely to have professional jobs, although the 1999 school trustees were more representative of parents than at the start of the reforms.

Parents

Fifty-one percent of the 1745 parents who were sent questionnaires responded, a similar response rate to 1996. The majority who responded were women (77 percent). Sixty-six percent were European/Pakeha, 15 percent Maori, 6 percent Asian, 4 percent Pacific Island, and 4 percent "New Zealander". Five percent did not give their ethnic group. These proportions are comparable to the 1996 census figures for families with dependent children. They tended to be better educated than the 1996 census figures for a similar age-group.

Teachers

Fifty-three percent of the 749 teachers sent questionnaires responded, down from 66 percent in 1996. This may reflect the jump in teachers' workload since 1996, which is described in chapter 11.

Ninety percent of those responding were female, somewhat more than the 1997 national figure of 81 percent, and 9 percent male. Men were over-represented among deputy principals (36 percent), senior teachers (16 percent), and those who were interested in taking on positions of responsibility (12 percent). This is different from the 1998 Ministry of Education teacher census data, which shows that positions of responsibility were more likely to be held by women (78 percent).

Thirty-one percent of the teachers had some management responsibility. Ten percent were senior teachers, and 3 percent each were deputy or assistant principals. Sixteen percent had some other position of responsibility for which management units were paid. The 1996 NZCER survey had 33 percent of teachers in positions of responsibility, with more deputy principals (11 percent),

more assistant principals (7 percent), and more senior teachers (16 percent), indicating that some of these positions may have been lost from schools, and replaced by other management titles.

Eighty-six percent of the teachers described themselves as Pakeha/European, 12 percent as Maori, 2 percent belonged to Pacific Island groups, 1 percent to Asian groups, and 2 percent described themselves as "New Zealander". There is a slight over-representation of Maori teachers (in the 1998 teacher census Maori were 8 percent of primary teachers), and a slight under-representation of Asian teachers (1.5 percent in the 1998 teacher census).

Maori teachers were more likely to be newer to teaching (48 percent with less than five years' teaching experience, compared with 18 percent of Pakeha/European teachers; only a third had been teaching before 1989). Forty-four percent were aged under 30, compared with 17 percent of Pakeha/European teachers.

Analysis

Because the aim of this project has been to provide a comprehensive picture of the reforms and their impact at school level, the questionnaires used in this survey are also comprehensive, and therefore lengthy, though, we are told, otherwise user friendly. Copies are available from NZCER. There were common questions in each of the questionnaires for the four different groups.

Many of the questions asked were in the form of closed questions, with boxes to tick. Answers to open-ended questions and comments have been categorised. Frequencies of the answers have been reported on their own, and the answers have also been cross-tabulated with a set of school characteristics—size, location, proportion of Maori enrolment, the socioeconomic decile rating assigned to each non-private school by the Ministry of Education (a 1 indicates lowest ranking; 10, the highest socioeconomic status ranking), and the form of funding, fully (i.e., bulk) or centrally—to find out if these characteristics are reflected in any differences in answers.

It is worth noting that some of these school characteristics overlap, particularly the characteristics of proportion of Maori enrolment, and school decile ranking, and size and location.

Personal characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, education, and occupation have also been used in analysing parent and trustee data. Comparisons were also made between different groups' responses to the same questions.

Comparisons have also been made with the results of NZCER's previous national surveys in this series.

Cross-tabulations were done using SAS, and results tested for significance using chi-squares. Only differences significant at the $p < 0.05$ level are included. At the $p < 0.05$ level, a one in 20 chance exists that a difference or relationship as large as that observed could have arisen randomly in random samples. Tests of significance do not imply causal relationships, simply statistical association.

People responding to the current NZCER survey were not asked to judge the impact of the reforms on student learning or aspects of school life. This is because a substantial proportion of respondents would not have been involved in schools before the reforms, and, after ten years, it would be difficult to interpret responses or relate them to particular aspects of the reforms.

Terms Used in the Report

Because some questions allowed multiple answers, or because figures have been rounded to whole numbers, totals in tables (reported in percentages) may add up to more than 100 percent.

The three categories used in analysing school location differences are urban, small town (corresponding to the Ministry of Education's minor urban category; Balclutha is an example), and rural. The category of secondary urban has been omitted from this analysis because in the sample it provided too small a number of respondents to allow comparison. In most cases, the state and state-integrated character of schools has not been used to analyse answers.

Although comparison of proportions alone can seem to show differences, these differences may not be statistically significant once the size of the group is taken into account. In the report, the term "marginal" refers to differences which were just above the $p < 0.05$ level, where a larger sample might have revealed them to be significant. "Slight" differences refer to changes in results over time that generally are less than 10 percent, and "somewhat" refers to changes which are generally around 10-15 percent more.

3 FUNDING

Every school receives an operational grant, largely based on roll numbers, to cover the costs of their providing education. Fully-funded schools (originally known as bulk-funded schools, then directly-resourced schools) receive funding for teacher salaries within their operational grants. In early 1999, this option had been taken up by 24 percent of primary schools, and 57 percent of intermediates, largely because it improved their government funding, and was thought to allow more flexibility in allocating funds. Schools taking this option can also return to central funding after three years.

The operational grant is derived from a number of funding formulas related to different cost-areas, such as property or special needs. These different funding components of the operational grant are not tagged, and schools can allocate their government funding as they wish, provided that this allocation reflects the school's objectives, contained in each school's charter. These objectives must include the national education guidelines (NEGs), comprising the National Educational Goals (broad rather than specific), the National Administration Guidelines (NAGs), and the National Curriculum statements, which include achievement objectives for each national curriculum area.

Over the decade since *Tomorrow's Schools*, government funding has increasingly emphasised per-student funding formulas, sometimes weighted by individual or school characteristics (Wylie, 1999). Per-student formulas for funding schools are attractive to policy makers because they are comparatively simple, help to provide a consistent "logic", and fit well with the belief, which is still apparent, that school self-management is the key element in providing or improving good education.[3] However, principals, teachers, and trustees in schools have been wary of full-funding, and many have opposed current moves to switch funding from the teacher support services advisory services) to individual school operational grants, on a per-student basis.

Previous NZCER surveys showed increasing dissatisfaction with the amount of funding they received from government in school operational grants. The Ministry of Education's own briefing papers to the incoming government in 1996 estimated a loss of 10 percent in schools' purchasing power from 1989 to 1996. The 1996 budget began a series of increases in operational funding. The Ministry of Education notes increases of 20 percent in operational funding between 1994 and 1999, with some of this due to shifting funding from staffing salaries to the operational funding (Minister of Education, 1999, p. 47).

Between 1990 and 1998, the increase per student for both primary and secondary sectors, in inflation-adjusted terms, is less marked, showing declines in real terms until 1997, and by 1999, an estimated increase of 4.4 percent over 1990 per-student spending (ESRA 1998). But although the funding per student has caught up with 1990 figures, and improved on them, the increase may have been insufficient to make up for any cutbacks and under-spending on school materials which was occurring in schools between 1990 and 1997.

---

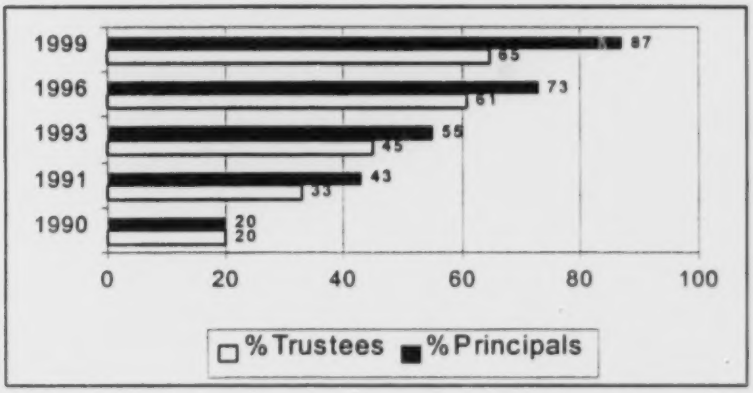
[3] There is little research evidence that this is the case. Relevant research literature is included in Townsend (1998) and Wylie (1999).

Adequacy of Government Funding

Despite the recent increase in the operational grant, most principals still do not find their government funding adequate to meet their school needs, as shown below.

Figure 1

Proportion of Principals and Trustees Who Find Their Government Funding Inadequate



Indeed, the longer New Zealand schools experience self-management, the more it appears they find their government funding inadequate. This may reflect the increased expectations on and of schools, including continuing changes to curriculum and assessment, initiated at the national level, and mandatory for schools, and efforts to become more responsive to different student needs, which are part and parcel of contemporary education, and one of the original intentions of the reforms.

Comparing information on the per-student amount given by government funding and school expenses between 1994 and 1997 (Minister of Education, 1999, p. 48) shows a shortfall of $189 in 1994, rising to $232 in 1997.

Views of the inadequacy of government funding are unrelated to decile or whether schools are fully-funded, or not. The schools that are the best resourced per capita are those whose principals view their government funding more favourably. Rural principals were more likely to find their school's funding adequate (17 percent), and principals of the smallest schools (35 percent) most likely to find their government funding adequate.

While low-decile schools receive more government funding per student than others, they also incur higher costs. Analysis of material given in the Minister of Education's annual reports shows administration costs rose by 10 percent in decile 1–3 schools between 1995 and 1997, while they dropped by 2 percent in decile 8–10 schools, so that by 1997 administration costs per student were $276 in decile 1–3 schools, compared with $248 in decile 8–10 schools. Property management costs in decile 1–3 schools were higher in 1995, and increased by 15 percent over the two years, only a little more than the 14 percent increase for decile 8–10 schools, but enough to give a cost differential in 1997 of $28 per student.

Thirty-seven percent of the trustees, and 71 percent of those who joined their board in 1999, said they were still learning about their school's funding. Trustees who were unsure whether their

school's funding was adequate were more likely to say they were still learning about it (81 percent).

Dealing with Financial Issues

Only 26 percent of the trustees said their school had not faced any financial issues or problems during the past two years. The main responses to financial problems were to put more effort into fundraising (26 percent), or seeking outside sponsorship (15 percent), or to cut back spending in some areas (21 percent), or across the board (20 percent), to reduce support-staff hours (10 percent), or support-staff pay and conditions (4 percent). Help and advice was sought from a range of organisations: the Ministry of Education (19 percent), the Ministry of Education's school support scheme (4 percent), NZSTA (11 percent), other schools (10 percent), NZEI (7 percent), or the Principals' Federation (3 percent). Seventeen percent changed their accounting system, 10 percent changed the people responsible for their financial work, and 3 percent hired temporary staff from a private firm.

This range of actions and advice is much the same as trustees reported in 1996 and 1993, but with somewhat less increased fundraising effort than 1993 (when it was 38 percent), more interest in finding outside sponsorship (10 percent in 1993), and far fewer changes to accounting systems (44 percent in 1993).

Seeking Other Sources of Funding

Most schools also applied for additional government funding, and many sought financial support from corporate sponsorship or philanthropic trusts. Success rates were lowest for those applying for innovations funding, Ongoing Resources Scheme (ORS) funding for children with moderate or high ongoing special needs, corporate sponsorship, or funding from a philanthropic trust. More schools sought curriculum than assessment contracts.

Table 1

Additional Funding Sought by Schools

Funding type ↓	Application Funded To Level Sought % Applications Made	Application Made, Not Funded % Applications Made	Applications % Sample (N=262)
Ministry of Education			
Financial assistance scheme	60	20	69
ORS funding	23	24	75
Curriculum contract	62	4	81
Assessment contract	63	9	44
Innovations funding scheme	19	63	27
Administrative cluster	66	14	27
Other scheme	41	32	45
Other sources			
Corporate sponsorship	22	32	39
Philanthropic trust	27	12	50

School characteristics were unrelated to school application and success rates.

The proportion of schools applying for the financial assistance scheme was double that in 1996, and twice as many of the schools applying were being funded. This increased interest and success rate probably reflects the additional funding made available for the scheme, which matches school-raised funds with Ministry of Education funding to enable schools to bypass the national priority list of capital works.

There was an overall trend for principals who thought their school's government funding was inadequate to seek additional funding from the Ministry of Education and community and private sources. Although city and rural principals were just as likely to apply for funding under the financial assistance scheme, city schools were more likely to get all the funding they applied for (43 percent compared with 30 percent for rural schools).

Rural schools were least likely to apply for ORS funding (44 percent). Decile 7–10 schools were less likely to apply for ORS funding (65 percent compared with 83 percent of decile 1–6 schools). The smallest schools were least likely to apply for ORS money (35 percent), or money to improve their buildings under the financial assistance scheme (39 percent), but were most interested in administrative cluster membership (45 percent applied compared with 18 percent of schools with rolls over 300). Seventy-one percent of schools with rolls over 300 applied for curriculum contracts, compared with 87 percent of schools with rolls under 300.

Fully Funded Option for Teachers' Salaries

Another source of additional revenue for a number of schools has been the latest model of bulk funding for teachers' salaries, which advantages schools where staff are not at the top of the current salary scales, by paying teacher salaries as if they were at or close to the top of the current salary scales.[4] Twenty-six percent of the schools were fully funded[5]. Thirty-two percent of urban schools were fully funded (bulk funded), compared with 18 percent or rural schools. Provincial schools also tended more towards full funding (54 percent, though the number of schools in this category is small). Schools with rolls over 300 were more likely to be fully funded (44 percent).

Local Fundraising

Schools raised money to supplement their government resourcing before decentralisation. But decentralisation has definitely increased local fundraising efforts, and some principals at high-decile schools feel they have become dependent on parental contributions to provide sufficient money to meet children's needs (Cassie, 1999a). The next table shows that the proportion of schools which could raise more than $15,500 in a year through their own efforts has almost quadrupled over the last ten years.

---

[4] Primary schools are paid at a rate based on the average of each qualification group, weighted by the number of each teachers in each group nationwide.

[5] The proportion of primary schools opting for full funding reached its peak in March 1999. Recent figures show that it remains at 26 percent.

Table 2

Total Amount of Funds Raised Locally in a Year

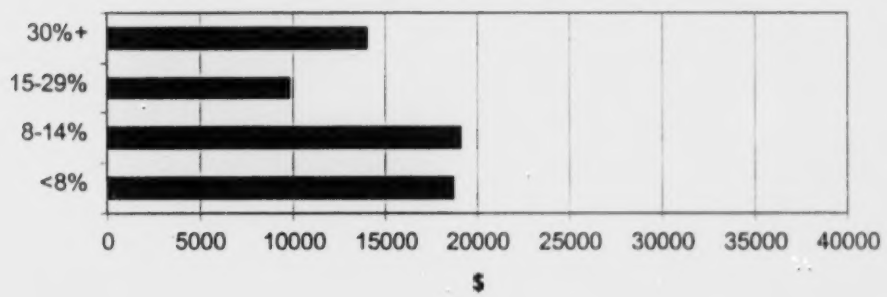
Amount	1989 % (n=174)	1991 % (n=186)	1993 % (n=191)	1996 % (n=181)	1999 % (n=262)
$2000 or less	20	13	11	6	5
$2001–$4500	21	16	19	18	17
$4501–$6500	20	16	10	10	12
$6501–$12000	21	27	29	26	19
$12001–$15500	9	7	7	9	6
$15501+	10	19	20	28	38

Note: the figures are not inflation adjusted.

Differences between schools are echoed in the amount of money they raise. Generally speaking, the larger the school, the more it can raise in total. Fully funded schools,[6] high-decile schools, and low-Maori-enrolment schools also do better than others in raising funds.

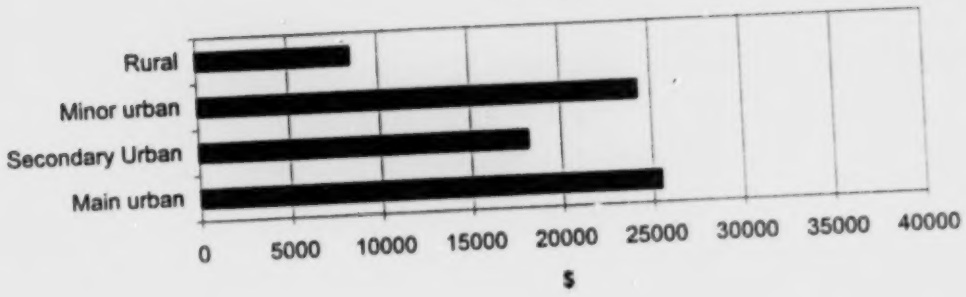
Figure 2

Maori Enrolment

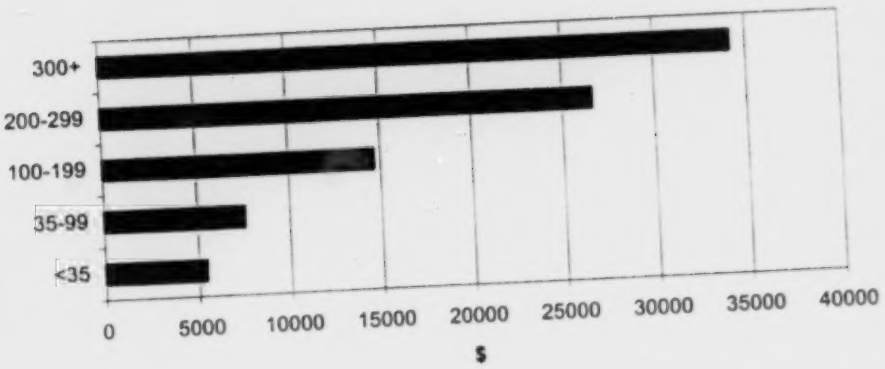


[6] Wilson & McAlevey (1999) found no difference in local fundraising for a small sample of matched directly resourced (the predecessor to full funding) and centrally resourced primary schools between 1994–1996, although there were differences, which pre-existed the take-up of direct resourcing, for secondary schools.

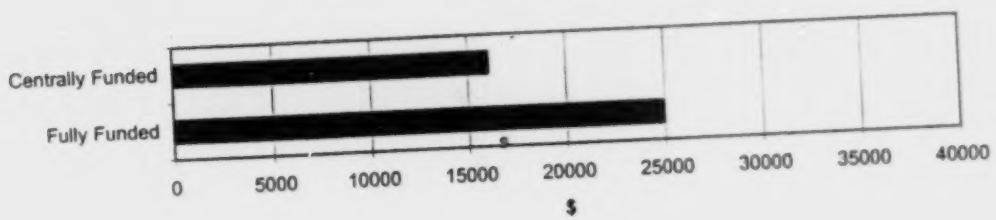
Location

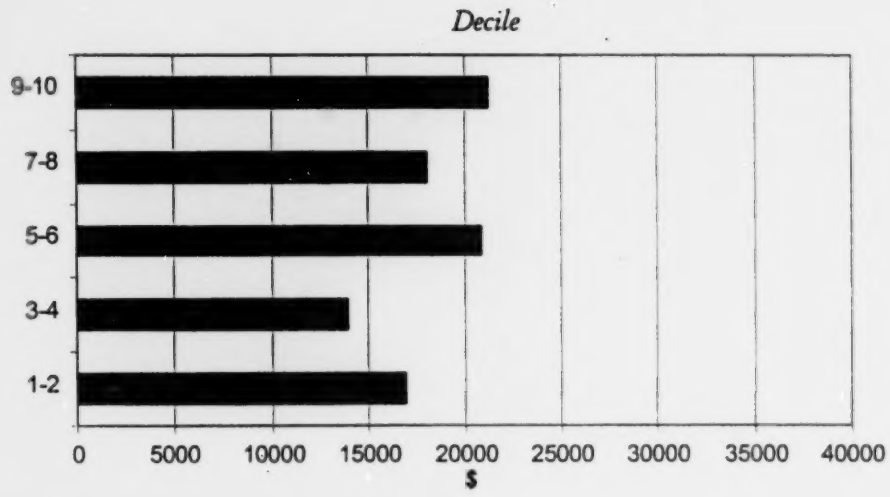


Roll Size



Full (Bulk) Funding





The increase in locally raised funds has been more consistent, and much larger than the increase in government spending. In 1992, local fundraising provided 7 percent of primary schools' income, and in 1997, 10 percent (ESRA, 1999). Primary schools' income from their own efforts (including investment of government funding received in advance of its spending) rose from $69 million to $135 million between 1992 and 1997, an increase of 95 percent. However, expenses incurred in raising funds reduced this amount by between 33–40 percent.

The picture of the contributions which different sources of funding make to schools' local funds has remained consistent since the 1991 NZCER survey (the year after schools first took responsibility for their own budgets).[7]

- *Direct fundraising* contributed around 53 percent of local funds.
- *School fees* contributed on average around 27 percent of local funds for those schools which had them.
- *Donations/grants/sponsorships* contributed on average 20 percent.
- *Investments*, including the interest raised on Ministry of Education funding given in advance of spending, contributed an average of 19 percent.
- *Activity fees* contributed an average of 13 percent.
- *Foreign feepaying students* (at 24 schools), contributed an average of 10 percent.
- *Hiring out of school facilities* contributed on average around 8 percent.

While activity fees are supposed to cover actual costs only, analysis of national figures for primary schools (ESRA, 1999) shows that the "profit" margin on activity fees was 53 percent in 1997, slightly up from 50 percent in 1995.

---

[7] Information on this was gained by asking principals to give the approximate proportion of their total locally raised funds. Thus the averages if totalled add to more than 100 percent. The answers here are approximate only, but comparison of the answers to the same question in the previous NZCER surveys does enable us to gain some idea of the trends in local fundraising.

School Fees/Donations

New Zealand school education remains legally free. Most schools charge voluntary fees, or donations, and also levy activity fees, to cover the costs of materials. State-integrated schools' fees also cover contributions to capital works, since their school buildings are not owned by the government.

Twenty-six percent of the schools in this study did not charge a school fee. Rural schools were less likely to set a school fee (46 percent compared with 12 percent of urban schools). Schools with rolls of less than 35 were least likely to have school fees (29 percent).

In 1989, school fees ranged from $2 to $160 per student, and $5 to $99 per family. Only 29 percent of schools with fees asked for more than $20 a student. In 1999, the lowest fee per child was $5; the highest, $280. Sixty-nine percent of schools with fees asked for more than $20 a student. The average school fee per child was $50.

School fees varied according to school decile, and proportion of Maori enrolment.

Figure 3

School Fee per Child—Decile

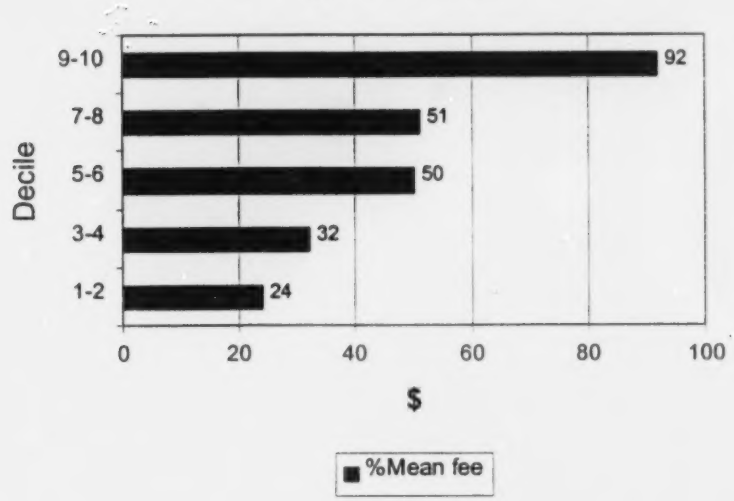
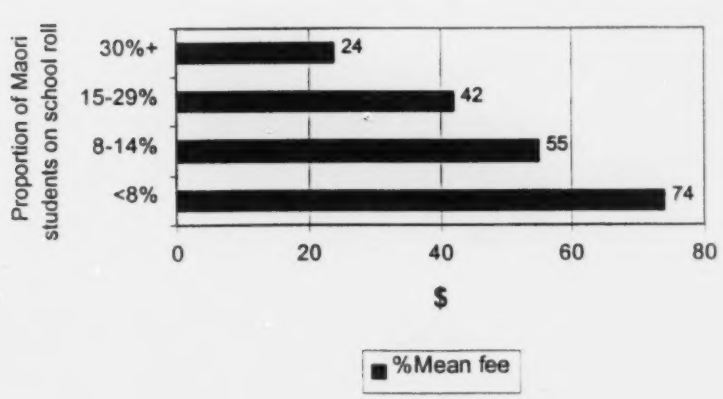


Figure 4

School Fee per Child—Proportion of Maori Enrolment



Fully funded schools also tended to have higher fees, with 40 percent asking for $50 or more per child compared with 25 percent of centrally funded schools.

Only 26 percent of the schools which set a school fee actually received their school fee from almost all or all of their students' families. Seventeen percent could collect donations from 80–90 percent of their families, and 33 percent from 50–80 percent of their families. But 17 percent of the schools which charged fees could not collect them from more than half of their parents, an increase from the 10 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey.

Despite the generally lower fees asked by decile 1–2 schools, few schools had them paid by 90–100 percent of their parents: 9 percent. Decile 3–6 schools also had similar low payment levels. Thirty percent of decile 7–10 schools had school fees paid by 90–100 percent of their parents, and 31 percent of very low-Maori-enrolment schools.

Balancing the Books

The latest available Ministry of Education figures on schools' overall financial situation (using 1997 audited accounts) showed 28 percent of primary schools with an operating deficit, and 9 percent with a large operating deficit (more than 10 percent of the revenue controlled by the boards of trustees)[8]. These figures are a little higher than 1995 and 1996; however, there was no increase in the proportion of primary schools in deficit for the three years ended 1997, and the proportion of primary schools with working capital deficits eased from 6 percent in 1995 to 4 percent in 1997.

In this survey, 55 percent of the principals expected their school would break even financially at the end of 1999. Fifteen percent expected to report a surplus, and 22 percent a deficit. Seven percent were unsure. These figures are much the same as in the 1996 NZCER survey.

Fully funded schools were more likely to expect to end the year in surplus (41 percent compared with 29 percent of centrally funded schools). The smallest schools were less likely to expect to end the year in deficit (10 percent). Roll patterns over the years also played a part, with an over-representation of the schools where student numbers remained the same each year among the schools expecting to end the 1999 year in surplus, and conversely, an over-representation of schools which had experienced continuing falls in student numbers amongst those looking at a deficit position at the end of the year. Schools facing a deficit were less likely to describe their relations with other local schools as co-operative.

Unsurprisingly, principals of schools expecting a surplus at the year's end were much more likely to think that their school's government funding was adequate (36 percent).

However schools' expected financial position at the end of the year was unrelated to efforts to gather more money through applications to the Ministry of Education, corporate sponsors, or philanthropic trusts. This may indicate that schools attempt to live within their known income. Also, since most principals found their government operational funding inadequate, most were also looking for additional funding.

---

[8] The Ministry of Education is less concerned with single-year operating deficits, since these may indicate substantial property work, as it is with consistent operating deficits over several years (Minister of Education 1999, p. 56).

For the year after, 53 percent expected to break even, 16 percent to post a surplus, 18 percent a deficit, and 13 percent were unsure. Again, this is much the same as in the 1996 NZCER survey. There was no statistically significant difference between fully funded and centrally funded schools.

This suggests that the trends reported by the Ministry of Education to 1997 are likely to continue. It also suggests that the increases in the operating grant, and an increase in the number of schools receiving more government funding as result of opting for full funding, have not substantially improved the base financial position for many New Zealand primary schools.

Parents' Estimates of Money Spent on Their Child's Education

Parental estimates of their spending on their child's education, including transport and school trips, gave averages of $187 in 1991, $304 in 1993, and $491 in 1996. The 1999 average was $493, two and a half times as great as the 1991 figure, but little different from three years ago. This raises a question of whether parental contributions to education have reached their limit.

However, there were different trends related to occupation and employment. Parents in professional occupations were spending $691 on average (up from $647 in the 1996 survey); parents in skilled work, $436; much the same as in 1996, parents in unskilled work had increased their spending (from an average of $450 in 1996 to $525 in 1999); but spending on their child's education by those who were unemployed and/or receiving state benefits had dropped somewhat from $377 to $365.

Summary

- Most principals continued to find government funding inadequate to meet their school's needs, despite recent and real increases to government operational funding. That this is so, even for schools which do better than others in raising money from their school community (high decile, low Maori enrolment, and fully funded schools), indicates that there are difficulties across the board in matching revenue with expectations, both government and locally generated.
- Without local fundraising, and continuing efforts by schools to secure additional funding, mainly from the Ministry of Education, but also, and increasingly, from corporate organisations and philanthropic trusts, most schools would appear unable to cover all their existing costs, and would have to cut back more than they currently do, or operate at a deficit.
- Primary schools have increased their local fundraising substantially over the decade: in 1999, for example, 38 percent of schools raised over $15,501, compared with 10 percent in 1989. School fees also rose over the decade: 69 percent of primary schools asked for more than $20 a child in 1999, compared with 29 percent in 1989. Bearing in mind that 26 percent of schools did not charge fees in 1999, this means that almost every school fee was at least $20.
- While schools are aware of the difficulty of getting all parents to pay "voluntary" school fees, parents are also paying for other school costs, including activity fees, which many schools have seen as a way to raise more money, transport, and school trips. The average amount paid by parents in 1999 was $493, little different from the 1996 figure of $491.
- NZSTA and NZEI have called for a full review of school funding, and asked for sector inclusion in a working party to address the issues which have emerged, and which this survey

shows remain despite some government measures to improve school funding. There has been some reluctance to include education sector representatives in a funding review in contrast with the willingness to involve officials and education sector representatives in joint taskforces on assessment and literacy. However, recently the Secretary of Education has reiterated the value of partnership in relation to improving "the effectiveness of both policy and delivery" (Fancy 1999, p. 20), and the Education Accord, the education sector group representing all the main education bodies, has recently been asked to supply names from which the Minister can select members of a working group to address the formulas used in reaching the operational grant, but not the actual amount of funding.[9]

[9] At the start of the reforms, working groups were set up to cover the main aspects, including funding. These groups were vital to ensuring that the detail of the reforms was informed by practical knowledge, and helped assure the sector that the government intended a real partnership with it. At this stage, sector groups could nominate their ownrepresentatives.

4 STAFFING

Numbers of teaching staff at every state and state-integrated school largely reflect the school's government entitlement staffing, based on roll and year levels. Management staffing for each school is also decided by roll and year levels, the number of attached teachers (such as Resource Teachers of Maori), and staffing for special needs (based on the number of individual children verified as having high needs).

Many schools also fund some additional teaching hours from locally raised funds, or Ministry of Education schemes such as reading recovery hours, or the provisionally registered teachers' allowance.

Teacher/student ratios used to decide entitlement staffing were improved for many schools in 1996, when the Ministerial Reference Group (MRG), a cross-sector group which included the teacher unions, recommended a teacher/student ratio of 1:23 in years 1 to 3, and 1:29 in years 4 to 8, with a maximum average class size of 28 in small schools. The new formula increased the number of teaching and school management positions nationally by around 800, although many small schools which had had better ratios than other schools before 1996 lost staff.

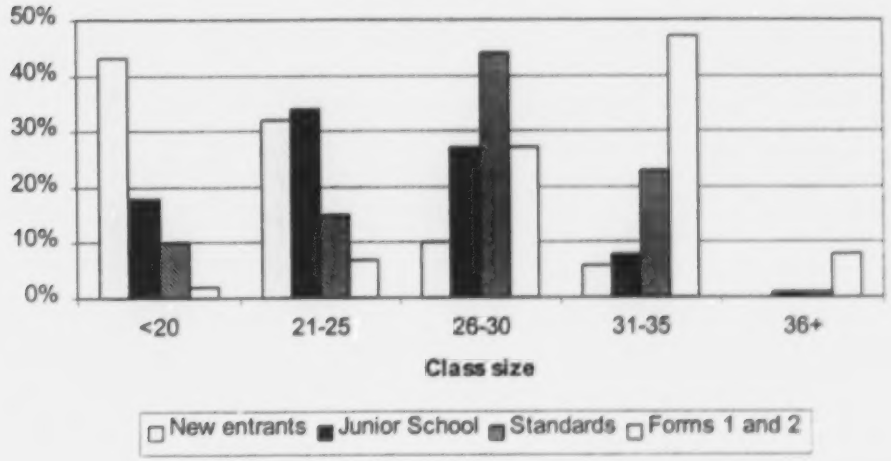
Class sizes have been one of parents' main concerns in the NZCER surveys. The 1996 NZCER survey found that the central change to the staffing formula eased class sizes for the first time in the decentralisation reforms, with a lowering of the number of classes with more than 30 students.

Class Size

Few primary and intermediate classes now have 30 or more students: 13 percent compared with 23 percent in 1996, the first year of the MRG model, and 33 percent from 1989–1993. Twenty-one percent of the teachers reported classes of fewer than 20 students. Twenty-eight percent had classes of 20 to 24 students, and 32 percent, classes of 25 to 29 students. Smaller classes are more likely to occur in new entrant and junior classes, reflecting the MRG funding formula (*see* figure 5).

Figure 5

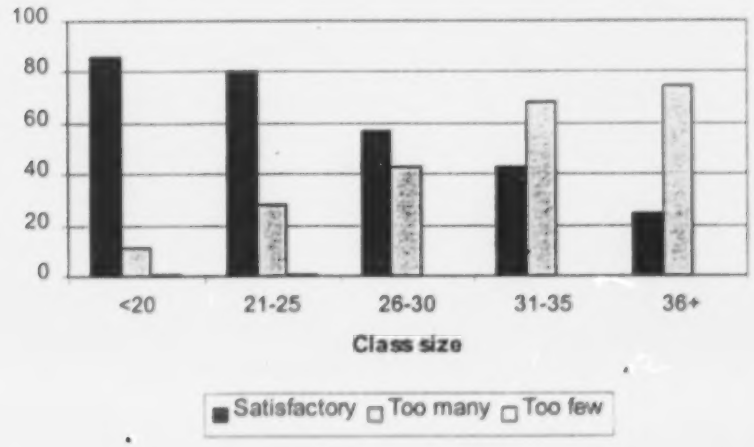
Class Size in 1999



Class size remains a concern of parents, but for fewer than in previous NZCER surveys: 37 percent thought that their child's class had too many children in it, compared with 49 percent in 1996. Fifty-nine percent of the parents thought the number of children in their child's class was satisfactory, and 1 percent that there were too few children in the class. Parental satisfaction with class size was related to the number of children in the class.

Figure 6

Parental Satisfaction with Their Child's Class Size



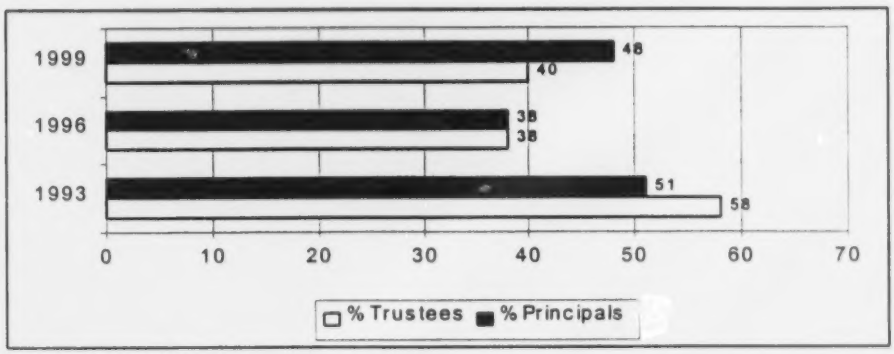
Teaching Staff

How Adequate Is Present Staffing?

Almost half the principals thought their entitlement staffing was enough to meet their school's needs. This is an improvement on 1996 perceptions. Trustees tend to be slightly less satisfied than principals, as the next figure shows.

Figure 7

Perceptions of Staffing Adequacy 1993–1999



Principals' satisfaction with entitlement staffing was highest in schools with rolls of fewer than 100, 66 percent, and dropped to 32 percent of schools with rolls of 200 or more. It was also linked to school decile, rising from 40 percent of principals in decile 1–2 schools to 54 percent of principals in decile 9–10 schools. Sixty-four percent of principals at rural schools also felt their entitlement staffing was sufficient for their school's needs, compared with 36 percent of city principals.

Fifty-three percent of those who found their government funding inadequate for the school's needs also found their entitlement staffing inadequate, compared with 23 percent of those who found their government funding adequate. This was more marked for trustees—71 percent compared with 30 percent.

Employment of Teaching Staff Above Entitlement

However, 54 percent of schools were also employing staff above their entitlement, using locally raised funds or operational funding, although operational funding is intended to cover costs other than teaching staff. There has been a marked increase in the proportion of schools doing this, from 11 percent in 1991, and 29 percent in 1996.

Fully funded schools were more likely to be using operational funding or local funds to employ additional staff, 74 percent. Schools with rolls under 100 were less likely to do this than others (36 percent compared with 64 percent), as were rural schools (39 percent): the schools which were more satisfied with their staffing entitlements than others, and the schools which tended to raise less than others in local fundraising.

Another 7 percent of principals intended to employ staff above their entitlement later in the school year, probably to meet the needs of new entrants. Although such flexibility of staffing has been given as one of the particular gains of full funding, this part-year employment was found equally in fully funded and centrally funded schools. Part-year employment was more common in decile 5–10 schools (9 percent compared with 3 percent of decile 1–4 schools).

Thirty-two percent of schools employed additional teaching staff as classroom teachers, to reduce class sizes, and 31 percent employed specialist teachers, with mention of reading recovery and special needs teachers. Six percent of the principals commented that they employed additional teaching staff to release themselves or other senior staff from classroom work, in order to carry out management work.

Teacher Turnover

Forty-eight percent of the schools in this study had stable staffing, with no classes changing teachers during the year. Stable staffing was related to socioeconomic decile, rising from 34 percent of decile 1–2 schools to 63 percent of decile 9–10 schools., with a similar pattern evident in relation to the proportion of Maori enrolment in a school. Most schools with changes of teachers during the year had them in just one or two classes (42 percent), with 4 percent having changes in three to five classes.

Rural schools showed the most stability, despite their greater difficulty finding teachers. Sixty-seven percent of the schools had kept the same teacher(s) throughout the year, compared with 35 percent of city schools.

Staffing stability fluctuates. Seventy percent of the schools had lost at least one teacher over the previous 12 months, somewhat less than the 81 percent in the 1996 survey, but somewhat more than the 63 percent in the 1993 survey. Thirty percent had lost up to a fifth of their teaching staff. Eighteen percent of the schools had teacher turnover rates of between a fifth to two-fifths of their staff, and 13 percent, between two-fifths and a total turnover (two schools).

The next table shows that the main reason[10] for teachers to leave their school is for a new teaching position, mostly in other primary schools. Pay parity with secondary teachers does not seem to have increased the flow of primary teachers to secondary schools. It was 4 percent, as it had been in 1996, before the introduction of pay parity. One new trend is for teachers to be leaving schools because their employment contract has come to an end.

[10] According to principals.

Table 3

Teachers' Reasons for Leaving Their School

Reason	1990 % (n=278)	1991 % (n=141)	1993 % (n=120)	1996 % (n=364)	1999 % (n=303)
New position	28	29	29	39	30
Travel	9	7	6	7	14
Parental leave	15	13	10	6	8
Promotion	17	18	12	10	8
Change of career	12	4	7	15	7
End of contract	–	–	–	–	7
Study	–	–	–	–	6
Stress	9	4	7	6	3
School downgraded	2	3	10	2	3
Dismissal	1	3	1	1	3
Health	–	–	–	–	3
Retirement	10	8	10	6	1

Looking at long-term trends over the decade, there appears to be less opportunity for promotions, fewer teachers taking parental leave, and fluctuations in those who change careers.

Principals' and Teachers' Employment Status[11]

Teachers are appointed by school boards of trustees. They can be appointed to permanent or limited-term positions, and on a full- or part-time basis. Principals are also appointed by school boards of trustees, and all those in schools with rolls over 300 were placed on renewable contracts after the 1997–98 national collective employment contract negotiations, as part of the Ministry of Education's position that principals should be regarded as CEOs of businesslike organisations. [12] Supplementary grants went to all schools with rolls over 300. The Ministry of Education also made supplementary grants to schools with rolls under 300, provided the principal went on to an individual employment contract. All principals were also placed on renewable contracts, incumbent principals for eight years, and new appointees, five years.

Principals

Fifty-three percent of the principals responding were now on individual employment contracts. Most non-teaching principals were on individual employment contracts (85 percent), compared with 27 percent of teaching principals. Fully funded school principals were mostly on individual employment contracts (79 percent), as were state-integrated school principals (79 percent also).

---

11 The new performance management aspects of teaching professionals are covered in chapter 10.

12 Principals' salaries were also calculated on the number of students on the school roll, not the number of teachers, as before.

Reflecting the fact that women are more likely than men to be teaching principals, more women remain in the collective employment contract (54 percent compared with 39 percent of men). Rural principals were also more likely to be on the collective employment contract (80 percent).

Most principals' contracts were for eight years (72 percent), with only 17 percent having contracts of five years, and 2 percent, another length. Teaching principals were more likely to have the shorter five-year contracts (26 percent compared with 7 percent of non-teaching principals). Given that women are more likely to be teaching principals, it is not surprising that they are also much more likely to have five-year rather than eight-year contracts (29 percent compared with 10 percent of men). Rural principals were also more likely to be on five-year contracts (29 percent compared with 7 percent of city principals). Forty percent of those who had taken up the principalship at their school in the last two years were on five-year contracts. There were no differences in length of contract related to full funding, or the ownership of the school.

Use of Supplementary Grants

Fifty-three percent of the schools in the study had received supplementary grants. Three-quarters of these were schools with non-teaching principals. Fully funded schools were more likely to have taken supplementary grants (75 percent compared with 47 percent of centrally funded schools). In all but two schools, the principal had negotiated its use with the school board, and 90 percent of those who had negotiated its use were satisfied with this negotiation, and the use of the supplementary grant.

Most schools gave the grant to principals as salary or bonus. Teaching principals were somewhat less likely to receive the supplementary grant in their salary (41 percent of those whose schools got grants, compared with 54 percent of their non-teaching colleagues in schools which got grants). Principals in fully funded schools were more likely to receive some as a bonus (21 percent compared with 7 percent of principals in centrally funded schools), or to have some of it used for their professional development (19 percent compared with 9 percent).

Principals and trustees give slightly different views as to how the supplementary grant was used.

Table 4

Use of Supplementary Grant

Use	Principals % (n=262)	Trustees % (n=376)
Gave it all to principal's salary	30	12
Gave some to principal's salary	10	7
Gave it all to principal as bonus	6	6
Gave some to principal as bonus	11	9
Used for professional development	11	16
Used for equipment	4	3

Teachers

Sixty-one percent of the schools in the study had no teaching staff on fixed-term contracts; of those which did, most had one or two staff at most.

Eighty-two percent of the teachers said they had permanent positions. Eleven percent were on limited-term contracts, and 5 percent were in relieving positions. Most of those who were not permanent staff had one-year contracts; 22 percent had contracts of less than a year, 6 percent for one or two years, and two percent, between three to five years. Specialist teachers were most likely to have limited-term contracts (38 percent). New teachers were also more likely to be on limited-term contracts (20 percent), or relieving (11 percent).

Most schools employed some part-time teaching staff. Forty-five percent employed only one part-time teacher, 24 percent, two part-time teachers, and 15 percent, more than three. Sixteen percent of schools in the survey employed teachers for part of the year only.

Although there has been some speculation that one of the benefits of full funding was an increased ability to hire staff for part of the year only, there were no indications that this was being done more by fully funded schools, or that part-year contracts were more likely for new entrant teachers (where classes can build up over the year).

Full-time work is still the norm for teachers (85 percent). Many of those working part-time worked between 11 and 20 hours a week (39 percent), with 25 percent working ten hours or fewer each week, and 24 percent working more than 20 hours a week. Rural teachers were less likely to be full-time (77 percent), as were those at decile 9–10 schools (75 percent).

Trustee Support for National Collective Contracts

Despite the Ministry of Education's interest in moving to site-based bargaining, in conformity with a literal model of site-based management, which was brought into the most recent collective employment contract negotiations with both primary and secondary teacher unions, New Zealand primary teachers are still covered by collective employment contracts, negotiated at the national level between the Ministry of Education and NZEI (New Zealand Educational Institute), the union which covers teaching staff, including principals, and support staff at primary schools and early childhood education centres.

Most trustees remain supportive of national contracts, and prefer not to move to site-based contracts which they would have to negotiate themselves. In 1997, few primary school boards wanted to have the responsibility for negotiating salaries and employment conditions with the teaching staff at their school (3 percent) (Wylie, 1997a). In 1999, there was more interest from primary trustees, but still at a low level, 18 percent. Sixty percent of trustees were opposed, and 21 percent were unsure.

The main reason given by those who did not want this responsibility was that they lacked the expertise needed (40 percent of those opposed to taking on this additional responsibility). Other reasons were that it would have a negative impact on the relationship between school board and staff, that trustees were volunteers, that such negotiations belonged at national level and it was inefficient to pass the task on to individual school boards, and that inequities between schools could grow if different boards negotiated different salaries and conditions for the same work.

Nor did most trustees feel that principals should be making all employment-related decisions at their school, that is, taking on the full role of a CEO, in a business model. Seventy percent opposed this, with a further 7 percent unsure. Twenty percent were in favour, again an increase on the 7 percent of primary school boards who favoured this change in 1997. Trustees who thought principals should be responsible for employment-related decisions cited the principal's professional expertise (42 percent of those in favour), or saw the principal in business terms, as a chief executive (16 percent of those in favour). Those who did not think principals should make such decisions on their own thought that employment decisions were an essential part of the board's role (36 percent of those opposed), and that such decisions needed to be based on more than one person's view (32 percent).

Trustees who wanted to move to site-based bargaining were no more likely than those who opposed such a move to seek to extend the principal's role. Views on extensions to either boards' or principals' responsibilities were also unrelated to views on the adequacy of government funding for the trustee's school.

Appointing Teachers

Most school boards appear confident about making appointments. Forty percent of the trustees said their board had had no external advice or assistance; 13 percent said another principal was the main source of any external advice. Other sources were NZSTA, a consultant, the Ministry of Education, or NZEI. A few mentioned the Principals' Federation, another school board, or the Employers' Association.

Sixty-two percent of the teachers whose schools had made an appointment in the past year thought their school's appointment process was fair. Twenty-four percent thought it gave an advantage to people already working in the school, but 10 percent thought the opposite, that the advantage went to people who were not known to the school. Twelve percent thought it was based too much on personalities. Eight percent thought there was a disadvantage for older applicants, and 7 percent, for experienced applicants. Three percent thought women applicants for senior positions were disadvantaged. These views may be formed by the particular experiences of individuals, or the recent appointments made at schools.

Teachers at fully funded schools were more likely to think that their school's appointment process disadvantaged experienced or older applicants (17 percent compared with 7 percent of teachers at centrally funded schools), and this fits with the younger profile of teachers at fully funded schools (described later in this chapter).

Although it is a legal requirement for schools to have an Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) policy, only 70 percent of the teachers said their school's appointment process used the school's EEO policy. However, a quarter were unsure.

Teaching Supply

In the 1996 survey, when the MRG recommendations added another 800 or so positions, 55 percent of schools had difficulty finding suitable teachers. In the meantime, the Ministry of Education took some action to improve teacher recruitment by providing some financial support

for boards of trustees to bring in teachers from overseas, contracting for a set of brief refresher courses for teachers who had been out of teaching for some years, increasing the number of places it would fund at teacher education providers, offering financial incentives to encourage schools to set up local relief teacher initiatives (for their own and other local schools), and encouraging teacher education providers to provide 15-month "compressed" courses for graduates, and three-year rather than four-year courses. It continued to provide recruitment allowances and relocation grants for hard-to-staff positions.

In 1999, fewer principals had problems finding suitable teaching staff: 37 percent. However, this proportion is still larger than the 27 percent who had problems in the 1993 and earlier NZCER surveys, indicating that, while these central measures eased the immediate staffing pressures related to the MRG and rising rolls, they have not been sufficient to ease the underlying problems some schools face in finding suitable staff.

Only 13 percent of decile 9–10 schools had difficulty finding suitable teachers. High-Maori-enrolment schools, decile 1–2 schools and the smallest schools, with rolls under 35, had the most difficulty finding suitable staff (61 percent and 55 percent respectively). Rural schools also had more difficulty than city schools (44 percent compared with 30 percent). These patterns have remained much the same throughout the NZCER surveys, indicating that some kinds of schools are less attractive to teachers than others.

Trustees are much more confident than principals about the difficulty of finding suitable teaching staff, suggesting that principals' concerns may not always be shared with trustees. Only 7 percent of trustees felt that their school had difficulty finding suitable teachers, and only 2 percent, suitable principals. Trustees at high-Maori-enrolment schools, decile 1–2 schools, and fully funded schools were more likely to think there had been some difficulty finding suitable teaching staff.

A limited number of suitable applicants was the main reason principals gave for their having difficulty finding suitable staff (24 percent, up from 10 percent in 1993, but down on 41 percent in 1996). The remote or rural location of the school was mentioned by 18 percent of principals, much the same as in previous NZCER surveys. Eleven percent of principals mentioned the location of the school in a low socioeconomic area, and 6 percent mentioned a shortage of Maori-speaking teachers. These proportions are comparable with previous surveys, indicating little improvement in these areas over the decade of decentralisation, despite some central initiatives being taken after 1996—scholarships for Maori teachers were only introduced in 1998, for take-up in 1999, too soon to affect the supply of Maori teachers in primary schools.

The Employment of Non-registered Teachers

The Education Amendment Act 1996 made it illegal for all state and state-integrated schools other than kura kaupapa Maori to employ people in permanent teaching posts who did not have a practising teachers' certificate. Practising teachers' certificates must be renewed every three years by the Teacher Registration Board, which requires confirmation of recent teaching experience, and affirmation by the teacher's principal that their teaching is satisfactory, and they are involved in ongoing professional development.

Limited authority to teach can be granted by the Teacher Registration Board to an individual without a teaching qualification, if recommended by a principal for a specific position. There has been a rapid increase in the number of these granted, from 194 in early 1997, to 2126 in mid-1998 (Huge increases, 1998). This underlines the shortage of fully qualified teaching staff which cannot be solved by schools individually, as self-managing units, and which impacts most on the schools serving disadvantaged students. It also points to the growing attractiveness for some schools of having more flexible staffing, either to meet other priorities on limited budgets, or to manage roll fluctuations. Some schools were also willing to employ people with relevant knowledge but no teaching experience.

Non-registered Teachers

Ten percent of principals were employing one or more non-registered teachers (some of whom were probably teachers with a limited authority to teach). Five percent employed relievers who were not registered teachers, 2 percent employed specialists, 1 percent part-time, and 1 percent classroom teachers who were not registered.

Decile 1–2 schools were most likely to employ people who were not qualified teachers (30 percent, decreasing to 9 percent of decile 9–10 schools). A similar pattern was evident with respect to the proportion of Maori enrolment in a school. Fully funded schools were more likely to employ such people for specialist and part-time work than centrally funded schools (9 percent compared with 5 percent).

Limited Authority Teachers

Fifteen percent of principals reported that their school employed people who had only a limited authority to teach. Five percent employed such teachers as classroom teachers, another 5 percent as relievers, 4 percent employed them part-time, and 3 percent to provide specialist teaching. One percent employed such teachers for part of the year only.

The main reasons for using people with a limited authority to teach was that it was hard for the school to get registered relievers (13 percent), or that local people with relevant knowledge were available. Four percent of the principals noted that it was difficult for them to find registered teachers. Two percent noted that it cost them less than employing fully registered teachers.

Contact with the Teacher Registration Board

Around a third of the principals and teachers had had no occasion to contact the Teacher Registration Board. City principals and principals of decile 1–2 schools were more likely than others to have had contact with the TRB. Although some teachers wish not to have to pay for their own registration, most contact was at least satisfactory, with few noting any problems, and all of these minor.

Table 5

Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Experiences of the Teacher Registration Board

Quality	Principals % (n=262)	Teachers % (n=396)
Excellent/very good	16	10
Good	23	23
Satisfactory	24	32
Minor problems	6	2
Major problems	0	0
No contact yet	32	28

Relieving Teachers

Although only 14 percent of principals said they had difficulty finding registered relievers, another 47 percent experienced occasional problems in covering for staff absences (usually for professional development or illness). Twenty-eight percent of decile 1–2 schools had general problems finding registered relievers, falling to 4 percent of decile 9–10 schools. Thirty-two percent of high-Maori-enrolment schools had difficulty, compared with 7 percent of other schools.

Thirty percent of the principals noted a lack of registered teachers in their local area, and 29 percent thought that there was a lack of good-quality relievers, much the same proportions as in previous NZCER surveys. In the 1996 NZCER survey, half the principals thought that their difficulty finding relieving teachers was due to such teachers taking long-term positions. This dropped to 30 percent in 1999, although this figure is still much higher than the 2 percent in the 1993 NZCER survey, indicating the greater use of long-term relieving positions. This provides schools with some flexibility, particularly to cover roll fluctuations which have a bearing on entitlement staffing, including relief staffing to cover classroom time for school managers.

Teacherless Classes

Although many schools constantly have difficulty finding relieving teachers, only 14 percent of the schools in the survey had not been able to provide a teacher for every class in their school every day. This is an improvement on the 28 percent of schools in the 1996 NZCER survey which could not do so, and comparable to the 11 percent in 1993. Decile 1–2 schools, which had greater problems finding relieving staff, were less fortunate, with 32 percent having at least one day when a class was without a teacher.

Seven percent of the schools had classes without a teacher for only one or two days in 1998, 3 percent for three to five days, 2 percent for six to ten days, and only one percent for 11 days or more.

Provisionally Registered Teachers

Newly qualified teachers do not receive full registration until they have met registration criteria, including at least two years satisfactory teaching experience, and supporting information from their principal. Schools are given an additional 0.2 FTE staffing allowance for the teacher's first year to provide provisionally registered teachers with support and guidance.

Forty-seven percent of the schools had provisionally registered (beginning) teachers on their staff. Twenty-five percent had only one beginning teacher, 14 percent had two, 8 percent had three to five beginning teachers, and one school had eight. Provisionally registered teachers made up to a fifth of the teaching staff in 36 percent of the schools, and more than that at 11 percent of the schools.

A number of research studies and reviews have been undertaken in recent years of initial teacher training, particularly in relation to the introduction of compressed and shorter courses, and the inclusion of new teacher-education providers, including private training establishments, polytechnics, and wananga. ERO is currently conducting a review of teacher training, focused on employer (board) views.

Most of the principals who had beginning teachers on their staff were satisfied with the quality of their training. Four percent were not, and 9 percent said they needed more support than they had expected.

However, most of the principals who had beginning teachers considered they should have more preparation in some areas before they began teaching, particularly in

- behaviour management,
- assessment,
- reading,
- setting up a classroom, and
- mathematics.

There were a few comments also that some beginning teachers had difficulty with the workload expected of teachers.

Use of the 0.2 Teaching Component To Support Provisionally Registered Teachers

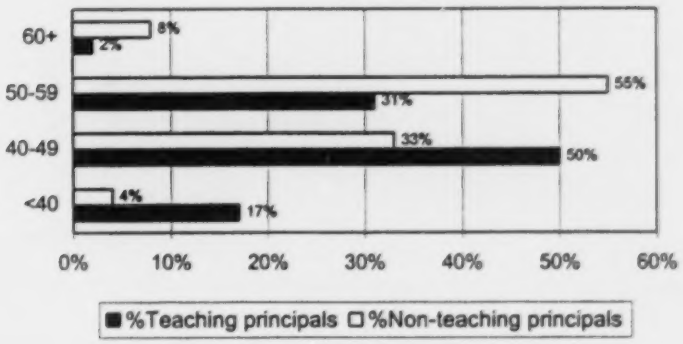
Principals reported that the main uses of this additional staffing component in teachers' first year of teaching were for a range of professional development activities (29 percent), or working with a tutor-teacher from amongst the staff (27 percent). Twelve percent each mentioned external courses or study, or observation of other teachers in the school. Use of the time for planning or resource development was reported by 10 percent of the principals, and visits to other schools, by 9 percent. Three percent mentioned student assessment as a use of this time.

Principals' and Teachers' Careers

Principals

Few principals are aged below 40.

Figure 8
Principals' Ages



Many of the principals aged under 40 had been principals for less than two years (40 percent), though 37 percent had three to five years' experience, and 17 percent had been principals for six to ten years.

It is not surprising that rural principals tended to be younger, with 21 percent aged below 40, compared with 5 percent of schools in other locations, and only 31 percent aged 50 or over, compared with 50 percent of schools in other locations. They also tended to be newer to principalship, with 44 percent having less than five years' experience, compared with 23 percent of urban school principals.

Thirty-eight percent of the principals were women. Women were more likely to be new to principalship (28 percent had less than two years' experience compared with 8 percent of men; and 27 percent had between three to five years' experience, compared with 10 percent of men). They were also more likely to be teaching principals, 67 percent compared with 48 percent of male principals, and to be new principals at their school (38 percent compared with 18 percent of men).

Women were more likely to be principals in the smallest schools (at 65 percent of these schools) compared with 41 percent of the schools with rolls of 35 to 299, and 19 percent of schools with rolls of 300 or more. Half the principals at rural schools, and 63 percent of those in state-integrated schools, were women, but only 22 percent of those at fully funded schools. The 1997 survey of newly appointed principals (Wylie, 1998a) found that in recent appointments women were more likely to be appointed to low-decile and moderate- and high-Maori-enrolment schools, but this pattern did not show in looking at principals as a whole.

Most Maori principals responding were in high-Maori-enrolment schools (71 percent).

Principals with more than 15 years' experience were more frequent in fully funded schools (38 percent 21 percent of centrally funded schools). Principals of fully funded schools were also more

likely to see themselves remaining at their current school five years from now (34 percent compared with 15 percent of centrally funded school principals).

Principals under 40 were less likely than others to see themselves staying at their current school five years on (7 percent). They were more likely to think they would change careers (23 percent). Principals in this age group, and those in their forties were most likely to envisage that their career would progress with a move to another school. Principals in their fifties were most likely to feel that they would remain at their school for another five years (28 percent). This is consistent with the analysis of 1997 principal appointments which found that principals in their fifties were less likely to be taking new posts (Wylie 1998a).

Principal Turnover 1989–1999

Most of the schools in the survey had had between one and two principals over the last decade. Twenty-five percent had kept their principal throughout the reforms, 34 percent had changed principals once, and 19 percent had had three principals. Twenty-two percent of the schools had had more rapid turnovers, with 9 percent having four principals, 7 percent, five principals, and 5 percent, between six and nine principals.

School size and rural location were the school characteristics most clearly associated with high turnover. Thirty-eight percent of rural schools had had four or more principals over the last decade, compared with 11 percent for schools in other locations. Sixty-one percent of the smallest schools had also had four or more principals over this time, and 31 percent of those with rolls of 35 to 99. While these schools are often the starting point in principals' careers, this higher turnover may also indicate that these positions are not as attractive to principals as others.

Schools with teaching principals were more likely to have had just one principal over this time (30 percent compared with 18 percent of schools with non-teaching principals), or, at the other end of the scale, to have had high turnover, with 30 percent of these schools having four or more principals over the time, compared with 9 percent of schools with teaching principals.

Twenty-six percent of the principals responding had been at their school for less than two years, 29 percent for three to five years, 31 percent for six to ten years, 11 percent for 11 to 15 years, and 3 percent, more than 15 years. These are much the same figures as in 1996.

Schools with teaching principals appear to have more rapid turnover of principals. Thirty-five percent of teaching principals had been principals of their school for less than two years, compared with 15 percent of non-teaching principals. Not surprisingly there is an overlap with location, with rural schools having more principals who had been there for less than two years (36 percent), and fewer who had been at their current school for six to ten years (19 percent).

Teaching principals also tend to be less experienced. Twenty-two percent were in their first two years of this key role compared with 7 percent of non-teaching principals, and a further 22 percent had three to five years' experience compared with 10 percent of non-teaching principals.

Teachers' Careers

Ten years after the reforms began 29 percent of the teachers responding started their teaching career after the reforms began, compared with 15 percent in 1996, and 8 percent in 1993. Eight

percent of the teachers were in their first two years of teaching, 12 percent had taught between three and five years, 17 percent between six and ten years, 12 percent between 11 and 15 years (down from 20 percent of the 1996 survey), and 49 percent for more than 15 years (down from 57 percent in 1996).

Table 6
Length of Teaching Experience

	Teachers % (n = 273)	Senior Teachers % (n = 123)
0–2 years	10	2
3–5 years	13	8
6–10 years	18	15
11–15 years	12	9
> 15 years	46	65

School characteristics were not associated with differences in the length of teachers' experience, other than for fully funded schools. As in 1996, teachers at these schools were more likely to be less experienced, with 28 percent in their first five years of teaching compared with 17 percent in non fully funded schools.

Teachers also had shorter lengths of teaching service in their current school than in 1993 to 1996, but much the same as they had in 1990. Over half the teachers had been at their school for fewer than five years.

Thirty-one percent of the teachers had some management responsibility: 16 percent received management units (introduced in 1998), 10 percent were senior teachers, and 3 percent each were deputy or assistant principals. While the 1996 NZCER survey had 33 percent of teachers in positions of responsibility, there were more deputy principals (11 percent), more assistant principals (7 percent), and more senior teachers (16 percent), suggesting that some of these positions may have been lost from schools. Ministry of Education data from the 1998 teacher census shows that 6 percent of the estimated staffing entitlement positions of responsibility, other than the principal, were not in fact occupied.

Only 8 percent of the teachers expressed interest in becoming a principal, much the same as in 1996. Interest in becoming a principal was not related to workload perceptions, but was related to morale. Teachers in positions of responsibility were only slightly more interested than other teachers in becoming a principal (10 percent).

Of the other teachers, 39 percent were interested in holding positions of responsibility, 45 percent were not, and 15 percent were unsure. Those who were not interested in positions of responsibility were more likely to be working part-time, on limited contract. They were also older than those teachers who wanted to move to positions of responsibility. Few of the teachers in positions of responsibility were aged below 40.

Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions of Their Position in Five Years

Just under half the principals and teachers definitely expected to remain in education five years from now, whether at their current school or another one.

Table 7

Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Position in Five Years

Position	Principals (n = 262) %	Teachers (n = 396) %
Move to another school	31	21
Not sure	22	32
Remain at present school	19	22
Retire	18	7
Change careers	10	7
Take a break from teaching	5	7
Move to another education sector	-	4

The pattern shown here is similar to that found in the 1996 survey, but with slightly more principals, and slightly fewer teachers, thinking they would be retired within the next five years.

Teachers

Length of service at a particular school was reflected in teachers' views of where they were likely to be in five years' time. Teachers who had spent 11 to 15 years at a particular school were most likely to think they would remain there (47 percent). The newest teachers were most likely to think they would have moved to another school—34 percent, falling to none of the teachers with more than 15 years' service at one school. Thirty-eight percent of the latter group thought they would retire. But there were no differences related to length of service at one school in relation to thoughts of changing career, moving into another education sector, or being unsure what would happen.

Specialist teachers were most likely to be thinking they would move to another education sector (19 percent).

There was more interest among those in very low and low-Maori-enrolment schools in changing careers (10 percent compared with 4 percent of teachers in moderate or high-Maori-enrolment schools), and less interest in retiring (4 percent compared with 9 percent). Teachers at fully funded schools were more likely to envisage moving to another school (29 percent compared with 18 percent), which may reflect lower ages of teachers in fully funded schools.

Principals

Principals who thought they would change careers in the next five years tended to have lower morale than others, and be more likely to reporting a 61- to 70-hour week than others (58 percent compared with 33 percent for others). Most of those who thought they would have a change of

career in the next five years had been principals for ten years or fewer. Principals who were under 40 were more interested in changing careers or having a break from teaching than others.

Non-teaching principals were almost twice as likely to expect they would still be at their present school in five years' time (27 percent compared with 14 percent of teaching principals), and around three times as likely to expect they would retire (28 percent compared with 9 percent of teaching principals). Sixty-three percent of those who expected to retire had been principals for more than 15 years, with most of the rest having 11–15 years' experience.

Principals in their fifties were most likely to expect to remain in their current school, which is consistent with analysis of 1997 principal appointments that found few among them in their fifties. Thirty-three percent of this group were also looking at retirement.

Principals who had been at their current school for fewer than five years were the most confident about moving to another school.

Support Staff

In 1989, the first year of education decentralisation, 62 percent of principals in the NZCER survey thought their school needed more support staff. Ten years later, 61 percent wanted more support staff: a figure that has been consistent through all the NZCER surveys. Estimates of the additional hours wanted are modest.

Table 9

Need for Additional Support Staff Hours

Area (n = 181)	1–5 hours %	6–10 hours %	11+ hours %
Teacher aides	10	7	31
Special needs aides	4	9	19
IT support[a]	10	12	19
Library	13	9	14
Clerical/accounts	10	11	9
Caretaking/cleaning	3	6	7
Executive officer	4	3	6
Kaiarahi i te reo	4	3	5

n = new item in 1999 survey.

Support staff are paid from school operating grants, and locally raised funds. Principals' views on the adequacy of their school's support staffing to meet the school's needs were related to their views on the adequacy of their school's government funding, with 70 percent of those who judged their government funding inadequate also finding their support staffing inadequate, compared with 20 percent of those who judged their government funding adequate.

Table 10

Support Staff Hours

Area	1–5 hours %	6–10 hours %	11+ hours %
Clerical/accounts	8	11	57
Caretaking/cleaning	3	13	56*
Teacher aides	11	17	53
Special needs aides	8	7	45
Library	16	10	21
Kaiarahi i te Reo	5	3	8
IT support[n]	5	4	2

n = new question in 1999 survey.

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous years' results.

Unlike teachers, support staff are more likely to be part-time, and not in permanent positions.

On average, the schools in the survey employed three teacher aides. More were employed on fixed-term contracts (49 percent) than in permanent positions (34 percent).[13] Most were employed part-time (76 percent), and 9 percent were employed for part of the year only.

Most of the teacher aides worked with children with special needs. Forty-one percent were employed using Special Education Grant (SEG) funding, a roll-based per-student funding, weighted in relation to school socioeconomic decile, which is part of schools' operational grant, but not tagged for spending only on special needs students. Pratt (1998) found that while some schools spent more on their special needs students than they received in SEG funding, others did not spend their SEG funding on special needs, making a surplus from this funding. More high-decile schools made a surplus than low-decile schools.

Sixty-nine percent of the survey schools were using their SEG funding to employ teacher aides.

Thirty-eight percent of the teacher aides were employed using Ongoing Resources Scheme (ORS) funding, which is attached to individual students who have been verified as having high or very high ongoing special needs. Fifty-six percent of the schools in the survey received some ORS funding.

Five percent of principals experienced general problems getting support staff, 8 percent had problems finding support staff to work with special needs children, and 18 percent had problems finding staff who could provide support for Maori language. These figures are much the same as in the 1993 and 1996 NZCER surveys.

There has been no increase since 1996 in the proportion of primary and intermediate schools with an executive officer or bursar. In 1999, 17 percent of the schools had an executive officer or bursar of their own, rising from 4 percent of schools with rolls of 35–99 to 34 percent of those with rolls of 300 or more, and 2 percent shared one with another school. Sharing was unrelated to school size.

[13] This adds up to less than 100 percent of the total number of teacher aides employed by the schools represented here.

Use of the Community Wage Scheme

The community wage scheme requires unemployment benefit recipients to undertake voluntary work and began in 1998. It was used by 40 percent of principals to increase the support available to their school, with those who thought their government funding inadequate more likely to use the scheme (43 percent compared with 23 percent of those who found their government funding adequate). At the 1999 NZEI annual conference, concern was voiced by support staff that some schools were using community wage scheme workers to replace paid support staff.

Rural schools were least likely to use the community wage scheme to augment their support staffing (29 percent), and those in small towns, most likely (55 percent). Use of the community wage scheme was also higher in decile 1–6 schools, 48 percent, than in decile 7–10 schools (30 percent). The smallest schools and those with very low Maori enrolment were least likely to use the community wage scheme (16 and 25 percent respectively).

Nineteen percent of the schools used the help of one person only, 8 percent had help from two people, and another 8 percent from three or four. Three percent had help from five or more, with one school using 12 people under the community wage scheme. The main uses of people engaged under this scheme were for support staff work: classroom assistance (22 percent), property maintenance or grounds work (21 percent), library work (18 percent), or clerical work (10 percent). There was no association between principals' views on the adequacy of the school's support staff to meet the school's needs, and use of people through the community wage scheme.

Support Staff in the Classroom

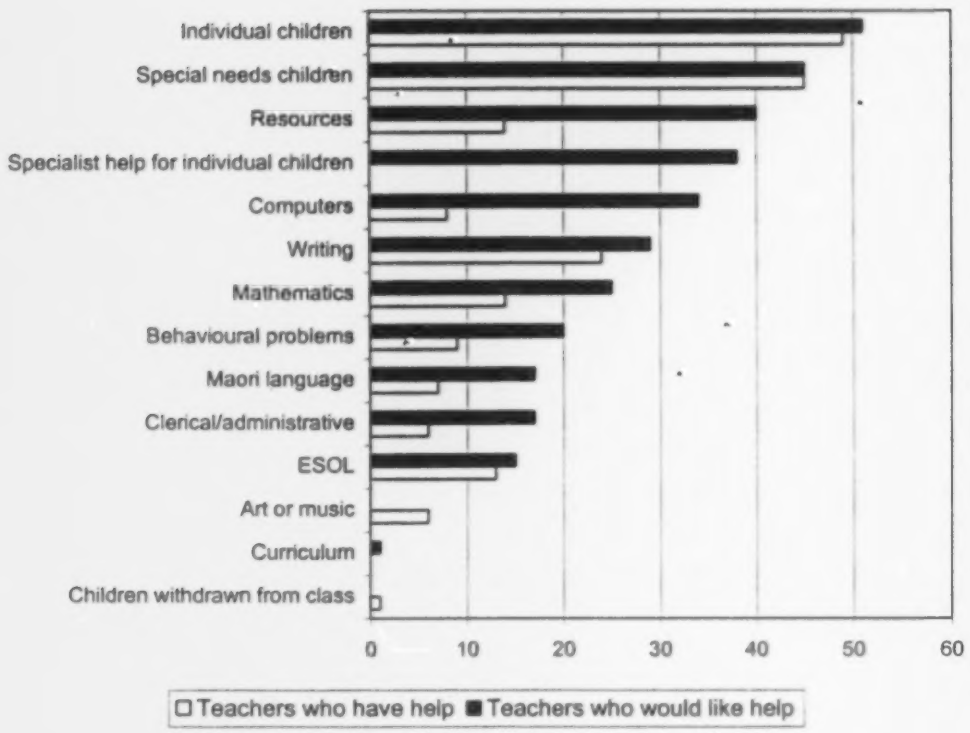
There has been a gradual increase in the proportion of teachers who have support staff working with them in their class: 64 percent compared with 53 percent in 1989. However, most teachers who do have some classroom support continue to have limited hours: 15 percent have less than an hour's classroom assistance a week, 36 percent have 1 to 2.4 hours, 26 percent 2.5 to 5 hours a week, and only 24 percent have more than five hours' help a week. This is much the same as in 1996.

Sixty-eight percent of the teachers responding would like some, or more, support staff time, a little less than the 77 percent in 1996 and previous NZCER surveys. Twenty percent would like more than five hours' help a week, 23 percent between 2.5 and 5 hours, and 25 percent, up to 2.5 hours a week. Interest in having (more) support staff help was unrelated to whether teachers were currently receiving help.

The next figure shows the kind of support teachers get in their classrooms, and the kind of help they would like.

Figure 9

Teachers' Use of Support Staff in Classrooms



Those who had some support staff help were also likely to have parental help (72 percent compared with 38 percent of those without support staff help). This was unrelated to year level.

Operational/Personnel Innovation

The regulatory review suggests that one reason why regulations need to be changed is to allow schools to become more innovative. Thirty-four percent of the principals would like to make a personnel or operational innovation in their school, but feel unable to do so. A further 15 percent were unsure. Principals of high-Maori-enrolment schools were least likely to want to make such change (25 percent).

Changes that interested principals varied widely, but often involved the addition or retention of staff, rather than changes to existing staff. Of those who wanted to make changes, 26 percent wanted to employ more administrative support. Eighteen percent wanted to employ specialist staff, and 11 percent, an information and communication (ICT) specialist. Other changes included the retention of special needs teachers, more team teaching, and more work with parents.

Lack of money was the dominant obstacle to making changes (91 percent of those principals wanting to make some change). Thirty-seven percent of those unable to make a desired change

mentioned the national curriculum, and 11 percent, the NAGs and NEGs. Lack of time was a problem for 34 percent of those who would otherwise make changes. Lack of commitment from the school board was an obstacle for 7 percent, and lack of staff commitment, 3 percent.

Principals of decile 5–10 schools were more likely to mention the national curriculum as an obstacle than those of decile 1–4 schools (44 percent of those wanting to make some change compared with 23 percent). A similar pattern was evident in respect to Maori enrolment, with 53 percent of the principals of very low-Maori-enrolment schools who wanted change finding their obstacle in the national curriculum, compared with 33 percent of other schools.

Seventy percent of the principals who wanted to make some operational or personnel innovation that they could not had also been unable to make some curriculum or programme innovation they thought would benefit their school, compared with 35 percent of those who did not want to make any operational or personnel changes at their school.

These findings suggest that resourcing rather than regulation is the main obstacle facing those in schools who would like to make some operational or personnel change, and that many of those who mention innovation, are in fact concerned with retaining or extending what they already have.

Summary

- The additional staffing which went to schools in 1996 is evident in lower class sizes, with few classes now having 30 or more students in them. Parents are less concerned with class size than they have been in the last decade. However, the government staffing entitlement is still thought by many to be inadequate, with more than half the schools employing more teaching staff than their government entitlement. There was no decrease in the proportion of schools which had difficulty finding suitable staff, and no change in the kinds of schools which found most difficulty: those serving low-income communities, with high Maori enrolment, or in rural areas.
- Schools in low-income areas or with high Maori enrolment were more likely to turn to unqualified staff, and to have classes without teachers, and they had higher staff turnover. Central initiatives and increased resourcing eased staffing pressures, and brought in sufficient staff to cope with the improved teacher/student ratios introduced in 1996, but did little to counter the underlying problems of teacher supply, which clearly individual schools cannot solve on their own.
- Almost half the schools had at least one provisionally registered teacher. Eighty-seven percent of the principals of these schools were satisfied with the quality of their training. They would like them to have more preparation in some areas, particularly behaviour management, assessment, setting up a classroom, reading, and mathematics.
- Over half the schools continue to want more support staffing than they can afford, although their wants are modest.
- The average primary school has had two to three principals over the last decade. Schools with higher turnover tend to have teaching principals (who as we shall see in chapter 11 have higher workloads than their non-teaching colleagues), in rural areas, and with small rolls.

- Just under half the principals and teachers responding were sure that they would remain in schools in five years' time. Those in their fifties find it harder to change schools. Principals with the most interest in changing careers or leaving teaching tended to be in their first ten years of principalship.
- As in 1996, fully funded schools do tend to employ younger, less experienced staff. This trend was also evident in a comparison of research on the bulk funding trials and teacher census material (Wylie & Wilkie, forthcoming). Teachers in those schools were also more likely to think that their school's appointment process disadvantaged older or more experienced applicants.
- Principals at fully funded schools were also more likely to be on individual employment contracts, and receive the supplementary grant in the form of bonus or professional development, rather than built into their salary. Yet trustees at fully funded schools were no more likely than others to want to take on full employment responsibilities, including the negotiation of teachers' employment contracts, or to treat their principal as a CEO, by allowing him or her to take sole responsibility for employment-related matters.
- Support for further shifting of employment-related responsibility to individual schools was higher among trustees than it had been two years ago, but it was still low.
- Resourcing was the main obstacle identified by those who would like to make some operational or personnel innovation, not the education regulations. And many of these innovations appeared to be additions rather than different approaches. This fits with the very low use of part-year appointments. It appears that fully funded schools were more able to add staff above entitlement, but this is likely to be due to their more favourable funding, including their higher locally raised funds.

5 PROPERTY

Maintenance and development of the school continues to be one of the main areas that boards of trustees spend their time on, and to be one of the main issues for boards of trustees identified by all groups involved in schools. Boards of trustees are responsible for all property maintenance which falls within a ten-year period, including day-to-day maintenance. They can borrow money for property work up to a defined limit without Ministry of Education approval.

Major maintenance and capital projects remain the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. In 1989, when boards of trustees assumed responsibility for school budgets, a set of "deferred maintenance" items were agreed with the Ministry of Education for each school, which were to be funded by the Ministry of Education, and not through school operational grants. Few of these items are still outstanding ten years later. However, boards could choose to be funded for modernisation projects rather than deferred funding projects, and this was a popular choice in 1998 and 1999.

Priority for capital work spending has been decided by the Ministry of Education on a national basis, with, until recently, advice from district property consultative committees, which consist of Ministry of Education staff, and representatives from NZSTA, NZEI, and PPTA.

The decade has also seen substantial roll growth nationwide, particularly in primary schools, although the peak point has now passed. There has been additional funding for classrooms—in the 1997 budget, close to 1000 new classrooms and 10 new schools. The 1998 budget included spending for 460 new classrooms for 1999, and $40 million to upgrade health and safety standards in existing schools (Minister of Education, 1999, p. 5).

In 1992 the Financial Assistance Scheme began. This provides 50 percent of the funding for property projects, with an annual total of $10 million available nationwide, increased to $25 million in 1998, when this source of government funding contributed to 816 projects at 713 schools. District property committees do provide advice on applications to this scheme.

A current policy, in line with the single-unit funding framework, revives the idea of schools having responsibility for their own property which was one of the recommendations of the 1992 School Property taskforce. The recommendations of this taskforce met with substantial sector opposition, and were not picked up by the then government.

A pilot programme, called Self Managed Property Funding, will allocate $15 million between 40 schools over a three-year period. Schools selected for the pilot need to demonstrate already existing sound financial and property management (Ministry of Education circular 1999/34). Funding will be based on roll numbers as well as the age and condition of the school. It will be allocated on the basis of a contract with the Ministry of Education, based on school development plans, with funds advanced as each project in the contract is undertaken. Schools with declining rolls are unlikely to be funded.

A new property code was also announced in October 1999 which provides a new way of calculating space entitlement.

Adequacy of School Buildings and Grounds

Although property issues continue to preoccupy many boards of trustees, classrooms, administrative space, and staffrooms are rated more highly now than in 1990, as the next table shows. But much of the improvement in classrooms and libraries was evident in the 1993 NZCER survey, after additional funding went into deferred maintenance. Those who find their libraries of poor quality have also grown over time, possibly reflecting changes in the use of libraries as information centres using information technology (IT).

It is in administrative areas that schools have been able to make improvements in the years since 1990, and even so these areas are more likely to be rated as poor.

Table 11

Adequacy of Schools' Accommodation

Facility	Very Good %		Adequate %		Poor %		None %	
	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=181)	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=181)	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=181)	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=181)
Classrooms	21	32	63	58	18	10	-	-
Library	27	37	55	38	14	24	5	2
Sports facilities	25	21	57	53	18	22	0	4
Administrative space	12	27	38	28	49	44	-	-
Staffroom	21	31	40	29	36	38	2	2
Swimming pool	14	19	46	36	17	16	23	28
Hall	12	24	17	15	6	8	61	51
Medical room/ first aid facilities	-	13	-	38	-	29		19
Resource rooms	9	12	36	35	37	45	17	6
Specialist classrooms	4	5	8	9	5	12	78	71
Marae/whare	0	0	1	2	0	0	89	90

Principals at decile 1–4 schools were more likely to find their classrooms of poor quality (16 percent compared with 5 percent of decile 5–10 schools. A similar pattern is evident in relation to Maori enrolment. Those in centrally funded schools were more likely to have poor administrative space than those in fully funded schools (51 percent compared with 29 percent). State-integrated school principals gave lower ratings over all to their accommodation.

Fifty-six percent of the principals thought their school had adequate space for community consultation, which is supposed to occur as charters and policies are revised, and 42 percent thought they had adequate space for private discussions with parents and trustees. These figures are consistent with the 1993 and 1996 NZCER surveys, indicating little improvement over time. Most schools which do not have adequate space for community consultation also lack space for private discussions between school staff and parents or trustees (85 percent).

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Trustee Perspectives

Sixty-one percent of trustees said their board had faced some problem related to property maintenance, a slightly lower proportion than the 70 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey, but much the same as in 1993.

Continuing problems with deferred maintenance were reduced (24 percent compared with 36 percent in 1996), but the two other main problems were as in previous years: getting money from the Ministry of Education (25 percent), and vandalism (24 percent). Nine percent had had to face unsatisfactory repairs, 6 percent a major unexpected problem, 5 percent ongoing problems with equipment, 4 percent the cost of the school's maintenance contract, and 2 percent had had problems with their insurance.

The main responses to property problems revolved round getting more money. Fifty-one percent of those who had a property problem spent more time dealing with the Ministry of Education, 21 percent cut back spending in other areas of the school, and 18 percent put more effort into fundraising. Others sought external support: from their local MP, other schools, NZSTA, or the local media.

Vandalism

Schools endeavour to discourage vandalism by improving the appearance of their buildings, using security systems, and encouraging community use of the school during out-of-school hours. High-risk schools can also receive government funding to buy security systems. However, some vandalism is more the norm than the exception for primary schools.

Only 19 percent of principals had had no vandalism at their school in the year to date. The smallest schools and rural schools were most likely to have had no vandalism (58 percent and 38 percent respectively). In terms of location, broken windows and graffiti or tagging were most likely to occur at urban, decile 1–6 schools. Decile 7–10 schools were also less likely to have vandalism (32 percent compared with 9 percent of decile 1–6 schools).

Fifty-five percent reported minor damage. The main kinds of vandalism were broken windows (47 percent, up from 35 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey), or graffiti/tagging (40 percent, up from 28 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey). Five percent of the schools had had major vandalism, and 11 percent, a series of break-ins.

There was a relationship between truancy occurrence in schools, and vandalism. Schools which had some initiative to reduce truancy were more likely to also have major vandalism (11 percent), break-ins (24 percent), or graffiti/tagging (60 percent).

Teacher Perspectives

Fifty-six percent of the teachers thought that their classroom space met the learning needs of their students, much the same as in 1996 and 1989. Twenty-five percent thought their classroom was not big enough. Twelve percent would like minor improvements made to their classroom, but

only 5 percent thought that their classroom needed replacement or major work (compared with 11 percent in 1989, and much the same as in 1996).

Classroom furniture was thought to be adequate by 56 percent of teachers. Thirty-two percent thought some minor repairs or upgrading was needed, and only 6 percent thought major repairs or upgrading was necessary, down from 16 percent in 1996, and 14 percent in 1989.

Seventy percent of teachers thought their school's recreational space was adequate, much the same as in 1996, but lower than the 86 percent of teachers who thought their school's recreational space was adequate in 1989. Year 7 and 8 teachers were less likely to find their school's recreational space met the needs of their students (58 percent).

Views about the adequacy of school libraries also show consistency over time. Sixty-one percent of teachers found their school library met their students' needs (56 percent in 1989). Nineteen percent thought the library lacked resources at their students' level, and 11 percent noted outdated resources. Access was a problem for the 24 percent whose school library did not have sufficient library staff time, insufficient space, 19 percent, or inadequate or difficult access, 5 percent. Year 7 and 8 teachers were more likely than others to note insufficient library staff time to meet their students' needs (40 percent).

Information technology was somewhat less likely to be judged adequate for children's needs: 46 percent. Thirty percent of teachers thought only minor repairs or upgrading was needed, and 17 percent, major repairs or upgrading.

Are People in Schools Interested in Taking Full Responsibility for Property?

We asked whether money for capital projects should come into schools' operational grants (rather than being made available after central decisions on allocation). This option does interest a substantial minority.

Principals were more likely than trustees to think their school board would be interested in receiving funding for capital expenditure as part of their operational funding: 41 percent compared with 31 percent. Twenty-eight percent each of principals and trustees were unsure of their board's interest in making this move. Principals of fully funded schools were marginally more in favour (51 percent compared with 37 percent of centrally funded schools). Otherwise there were no patterns related to school characteristics, satisfaction with resourcing, or with the Ministry of Education's support or involvement of the education sector in policy change.

However, trustees who thought their board would oppose taking responsibility for capital works by having funding included in their operational grant were more likely to have dealt with property issues by spending more time dealing with the Ministry of Education (42 percent compared with 29 percent). Perhaps this indicates that these schools had found the Ministry of Education helpful, and were relieved to have had (free) help in working out property issues.

The main reason given by principals in favour of including capital funding in schools' operational grants was that this form of funding would fit best with the principle of school self-management and independence (14 percent). Eight percent thought it would allow them to make improvements to their school, and 3 percent noted that it would make it easier for them to plan.

Those who were unsure were concerned about funding levels, funding for emergencies, and whether schools would be brought up to date before the switch to include property funding in school operational grants.

Trustees in favour of including capital funding in school operational grants also wanted more control (10 percent). Others were concerned that such funding would actually meet their school's needs (9 percent), or that the switch would create more work for them.

Summary

- As with staffing, school property offers a mixed bag of changes over the decade. Fewer teachers think their classroom space and furniture need major change. Slightly fewer teachers than in 1989 believe their school's recreational space can meet the needs of their students. Just under half of the teachers think their classroom, its furniture, the school library, and the school's information technology need improvement, though much of this is minor.
- Principals' answers indicate that classrooms have improved over the decade; libraries are both better and worse, possibly indicating changes in expectations of library quality (the new essential skills of the curriculum include information skills), and many schools still lack sufficient administration space, staffrooms, and spaces for community consultation or private discussions between parents and school staff.
- Boards of trustees seek to cope with property issues by seeking expert—and free—help from the Ministry of Education, or additional resourcing, or they cut back on other areas of school spending, indicating that property issues may take priority. The reliance on free help may suggest that any moves to decentralise responsibility for school property further still may need to take account of the need for such a service, if schools are not to cut back funding on learning.
- Most schools experience some vandalism, less so in rural areas, and at high-decile schools. There seems to have been an increase since 1996 in the incidence of broken windows and graffiti or tagging.
- Interest in having capital funding incorporated into operational grants is higher among principals than trustees. Reasons given for change are divided between the principle of school self-management (as an end in itself), and thinking that doing so may provide the school with a better opportunity to make some improvements when it wanted, rather than when the school's case was sufficiently high up the national priority list.

6 ADVICE, INFORMATION, AND SUPPORT

All schools receive free information from government departments on the requirements they must meet, and advice on how to meet them. The Ministry of Education, ERO, and the Teacher Registration Board have their own web-sites, and the official weekly *Education Gazette,* which used to contain mainly official policy announcements, notices of professional development opportunities, and job advertisements, now contains thematic material about what schools are doing in terms of curriculum, IT use, providing education for at-risk students, etc., based on school visits, or research findings. People in schools can also contact their regional Ministry of Education office.

The Ministry of Education has also funded the teacher support service, formerly known as the advisory service, which provides advice and professional development on curriculum, pedagogy, and management, and is operated by colleges of education. This service is free to schools.

The NZ School Trustees Association (NZSTA) is contracted to the Ministry of Education to provide advice to boards, including employment-related advice. Most schools, including non-members, receive monthly newsletters. Schools also receive regular material from NZEI, the teachers' union, and the NZ Principals' Federation. NZSTA provides its members with a comprehensive handbook. NZEI publishes the very useful *Principals' Kit.* NZSTA and NZEI also offer material on web-sites, and have regional offices which can be called on for advice. These organisations also work together in schools to solve employment-related problems, and, sometimes, to mediate in situations of conflict. Principals, teachers, and trustees also provide each other with informal advice and support.

Most of the advice or support which is used by people in schools comes free to the schools, or as part of a subscription, rather than on a user-pays basis related to a particular school's level of use. A current and controversial policy change to take place in 2001 would retain the teacher support service for rural schools only, and shift the funding into individual school operating grants, on a per-student basis.

Schools' Access to Advice

One area that has shown improvement since the early days of decentralisation is principals' judgments about their access to useful advice. In the NZCER 1993 survey, over three-quarters of the principals thought their access to useful advice was satisfactory for only 6 of the 17 aspects asked about. By 1996, this had improved to 11 of 19 aspects, and for this survey, to 12 of the 20 aspects of school life asked about. Particular improvement was evident for assessment (74 percent of principals satisfied with their access to useful advice compared with 59 and 58 percent in 1996 and 1993), audit requirements (87 percent compared with 78 percent and 68 percent in 1996 and 1993), and ERO requirements (71 percent compared with 60 percent and 47 percent in 1996 and 1993).

Table 12

Schools' Access to Useful Advice

Topic (n = 262)	Satisfactory %	Not sure %	Unsatisfactory %
Budgeting/finances	88	2	9
Audit requirements	87*+	5	8
Performance management[n]	85	7	7
Curriculum	85	2	11
School development	85	5	8
Staff development	84	3	9
Communication with parents	83	7	8
School discipline/positive student behaviour[n]	83	8	8
Building maintenance/repairs	82	3	15
Personnel/human resources	82	5	10
School library development[n]	82	5	11
Professional standards[n]	80	8	11
Assessment	74*+	7	17
Special needs children	71	6	21
Education Review Office requirements	71*+	11	16
Learning styles[n]	71	8	19
Gender equity issues	67	18	11
Information technology[n]	64	6	29
Treaty of Waitangi issues	54	23	21
Maori issues	54	22	21

n = new question in 1999 survey.

* = statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; '+' means an increase.

Rural schools were slightly less likely to think they were getting satisfactory access to useful advice on school library development, Treaty of Waitangi issues, and Maori issues. There was a slight trend for principals of the smallest schools to feel less satisfied that they had access to satisfactory advice, particularly for assessment, building maintenance, budgeting, and school development.

Twenty-eight percent of principals thought there was a particular area of advice or information their school needed and was not getting, and another 16 percent were unsure—much the same as in the previous NZCER surveys.

The areas mentioned by these principals were mostly in management (34 percent), including financial mediation or troubleshooting (10 percent), property (8 percent), financial management (6 percent), and personnel or school management generally (5 percent each). Twelve percent of principals would like access to informal advice. Seventeen percent would like some advice on teaching itself, related to teaching styles (9 percent), or curriculum (8 percent).

School Sources of Information and Advice

Tables 105 to 108 in appendix 2 show the sources of principals' advice and information on 11 key aspects of the reforms, and school work. The main trends over the last decade are:

- The main sources used are those which continue to be free or inexpensive, and ready to hand: advisers, the school's own teachers, and books and articles.
- The advisory service has been a prime source of school information and advice for the core work of teaching and meeting children's needs.
- The Ministry of Education is used mostly for advice on curriculum, assessment, and staffing; ERO is used less often.
- Private firms and consultants are used mostly to supply property and financial services. Their use by schools for curriculum, staff development, and assessment reflects the Ministry of Education's use of private providers in centrally funded curriculum and assessment contracts.
- Parents and volunteers are used less now to help with property and finance than at the start of the reforms. Chapter 9 shows that fewer parents are providing help than at the start of the reforms, although principals and trustees would welcome more parental and voluntary help.
- NZEI provides principals with their main source of advice and information on staffing and human resources; use of NZEI and the NZ Principals' Federation for advice and information on curriculum has increased since 1996, but use of these two representative organisations has declined for some other areas of school work.
- Cluster groups, to which all schools were assigned at the start of the reforms, have declined in use as a source of information and advice, although most principals said they belonged to cluster groups. The Ministry of Education is currently providing financial support for a number of clusters, but these are largely for administrative purposes, allowing schools to pool resources to employ common support staff.
- The Internet is used by almost half the schools for information about curriculum, and about a quarter use it for information about staff development; it is not much used for other aspects of school work. A similar pattern is evident for the use of research findings.

Principals' Contact with Each Other

Principals usually have contact with each other, formal and informal, through networks developed over some years. The pattern of these contacts has remained unchanged over the reform period. More recently, new formal support and professional development networks have been set up, such as the principals' centre and mentoring scheme. These last two have received Ministry of Education funding.

Table 13

Principals' Contact with Their Colleagues

Form of Contact	(n = 262) %
Local principals' association	87
Cluster meetings	77
Informal	74
NZ Principals' Federation	51
NZEI principals' group	23
E-mail	23
Support group	13
Principals' centre	11
Mentoring scheme	6

Rural principals were less likely to have contact with other principals through the Principals' Federation (38 percent), or the principals' centre (6 percent). Small-town principals were more likely to have contact with their colleagues through NZEI principals' group. Principals of the schools with rolls over 300 were most likely to use the principals' centre (28 percent).

Sixty-nine percent of principals thought the contact they had with their colleagues mostly met their needs. Twenty-six percent thought it sometimes met their needs, and 5 percent thought it did not.

Teaching principals were more likely than their non-teaching colleagues to find that their contact with other principals met their needs only sometimes (32 percent compared with 20 percent).

Principals whose needs for contact with other principals were mostly or sometimes met had much the same kinds of contact, with those who were more satisfied being more likely to be involved in the Principals' Federation, principals' centre, a support group, or using e-mail. Those whose needs were not being met had much less contact with others, other than informally.

Teachers' Sources of Information and Advice

Throughout the reforms, teachers' main sources of advice and information have been other teachers in the school, advisers, and books and journals. Teacher education providers and curriculum contracts are now also important. Principals were among the main sources for curriculum, teaching methods, and assessment at the start of the reform, but only half as many teachers mention them now. Teachers in other schools have also become a less frequent source of information and advice since the start of the reforms. Table 109 in appendix 2 gives the main sources of teachers' advice and information for seven aspects of their work.

Who would teachers report as the source of their *most* useful ideas for their teaching programme?

Table 14

Source of Teachers' Most Useful Ideas for Teaching Programme in Last Two Years

Source	% (n=396)
Other teachers in the school	74
Professional development course	69
Reading	60
Adviser/teacher support service	59
Visit to another school	36
Research findings	16
Internet	11
New assessments—SEA, ARB, NEMP	8
Other	5
Cluster meetings/other teachers in a group	1

Teachers in large and city schools were just as likely to find that their most useful ideas had come from advisers as those in the rural schools who are to keep their access to the advisory service, and those in small schools. More teachers in the smallest schools, with rolls under 35, found the Internet useful (25 percent).

Forty-seven percent of the teachers felt they were missing out on some needed information and advice, much the same as in 1996, but up from 27 percent in 1993, and 17 percent in 1990. Another 11 percent were unsure if they needed more information or advice.

The next table shows the areas where teachers feel they are missing out on advice. Stress management heads the list; teaching different groups of children, and assessment come next.

Table 15

Topics on Which Teachers Have Unmet Needs for Advice

Topic	% (n=396)
Stress management	20
Different learning styles	17
Assessment	16
Special needs students	14
Teaching methods	12
Future teaching career	11
Particular curriculum area	11
Student behaviour/positive discipline	10
Effective roles and relationships in schools	6
Performance management	6
Classroom management	4
Teaching positions available	3
Time management	1

Teachers also identified areas on which they thought their school needed advice. Stress management also heads this list. Relations between adults at the school also figure in the top bracket of areas of advice that they think their school could benefit from.

Table 16

Topics on Which Teachers Identify Their School Needs Advice

Topic	% (n=396)
Stress management	18
Improving children's social skills	16
Successful roles and relationships in schools	16
Innovation in teaching methods	15
Resolving conflict	12
Curriculum innovation	11
Performance management	7
Financial management/budgeting	6
Professional standards	6
Equity issues	3

Teacher Collegiality

One of the concerns expressed about the reforms, particularly in relation to full funding or performance management tied to remuneration—where teachers could end up competing for recognition or resources—has been that teachers could provide each other with less support. While the ground has been laid, neither of these options has yet been made mandatory.

Few teachers find that the sharing of resources, knowledge, or ideas between teachers at the same school is poor or nonexistent. Most teachers also appear to have some feedback on their own teaching from other teachers' observations. Just over half rate most of the aspects of collegiality asked about in the survey as very good.

Table 17

Teacher Collegiality

Aspect	Very Good %	Adequate %	Poor %	Non-existent %
Sharing of knowledge about individual children	72	22	2	1
Sharing of teaching resources between teachers	58	33	4	1
Sharing of teaching ideas between teachers in the school	57	30	9	2
Sharing of lessons and planning between teachers	54	28	10	3
Sharing of assessment resources between teachers	53	35	6	2
Feedback on own teaching from other teachers' observation	34	42	4	15

Teachers at the smaller schools rated their sharing of knowledge about individual children, lessons and planning, and teaching resources aspects of collegiality higher than their colleagues in larger schools.

Sixty-four percent of principals in the study thought that the teachers in their school gave one another excellent or very good support, and 29 percent, good support. Four percent described such support as satisfactory, and 2 percent noted minor problems.

Advisers/Teacher Support Service

As we have seen, use of the advisers/teacher support services provided by colleges of education through contracts with the Ministry of Education is almost universal among principals, and usual among teachers. Both professional groups rate the services highly, particularly principals.

Table 18

Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Experiences of the Advisers/Teacher Support Services

Quality	Principals 1999 (n=262) %	Teachers 1999 (n=396) %
Excellent/very good	53	29
Good	26	33
Satisfactory	12	20
Minor problems	7	3
Major problems	0	1
No contact yet	1	9

Rural and small-town principals made more use of the advisers/teacher support service, and gave the services a higher rating—65 percent found them excellent/very good—compared with 42 percent of urban principals. A similar pattern was evident in relation to school size.

Dealing with Curriculum or Management Problems

The next table shows the people principals turn to if they encounter problems with curriculum or management. It is interesting that advisers are turned to more for advice on curriculum than management, and that NZEI is as likely to be a source for advice on curriculum as the Ministry of Education. ERO is rarely seen as a helpful source of advice.

Table 19

Sources Principals Contact for Help with Problems

Contact	Type of Problem	
	Curriculum % principals	*Management* % principals
Adviser—school support service	91	50
Another local principal	74	83
Teacher in the school	66	39
Another principal—non-local	31	43
Teacher education provider	19	7
Principals' Federation hot line	15	48
Consultant	15	17
Ministry of Education	13	39
NZEI	13	53
ERO	5	6
NZSTA	3	33

Dealing with Curriculum Problems

Rural principals were more likely to contact another local principal (82 percent compared with 67 percent of urban principals). Urban principals used consultants more (23 percent compared with 8 percent of rural principals), which may indicate that consultancy services are more viable or more readily available in cities, or cheaper to access. Small-town principals make more use of the Principals' Federation hot line (32 percent). Principals of fully funded schools were more likely to talk to a non-local principal (44 percent compared with 27 percent of centrally funded schools). State school principals were more likely than state-integrated school principals to talk to another local principal (76 percent compared with 47 percent), indicating that support networks may differ according to the type of school.

Principals of the smallest schools were least likely to contact other principals, whether local or not; principals of the schools with rolls over 300 were most likely to contact non-local principals. Principals of the smallest schools tended to be newer to principalship than others (67 percent had fewer than five years' experience, compared with 10 percent of principals of the largest schools), suggesting that length of experience allows principals to build up networks of useful contacts with other principals.

Dealing with Management Problems or Issues

Principals of fully funded schools were more likely to contact a non-local principal (54 percent compared with 40 percent), and less likely to discuss any management problem with a teacher at the school (29 percent compared with 43 percent).

State-integrated school principals were less likely to contact a local principal (63 percent compared with 85 percent of state school principals). Rural principals were also less likely to contact another principal who was not local (32 percent compared with 47 percent in cities); this may reflect the fact that urban principals tend to be more experienced, and are likely to have

made more contacts over the years. City principals made less use of advisers/the school support service (40 percent compared with 63 percent of rural principals), and more use of consultants (23 percent compared with 12 percent of rural principals). Again, use of a non-local principal was linked to school size (and thus, probably, principal experience), rising from 19 percent of principals in the smallest schools to 67 percent of principals in the largest schools. Use of advisers was less likely in the largest schools (31 percent), with more use of consultants (24 percent in schools of 200 or more compared with 10 percent in the smallest schools), and the Principals' Federation hot line (52 percent compared with 35 percent of the smallest schools).

Trustees' Sources of Advice and Information

Trustees had support and advice through written material, their work with the school principal and staff, and contact with other trustees. The next table shows an increase since 1996 in reliance on three sources of advice: the Ministry of Education, school staff, and other trustees on the school board.

Table 20

Sources of Trustees' Advice or Support

Source	1996 % (n=270)	1999 % (n=376)
Material from Ministry of Education	49	76
Material from NZSTA	66	74
Guidance and information from school staff	43	71
Guidance and information from other trustees on the board	31	50
Material from ERO	41	49
Material from NZEI	41	37
Contact with NZSTA	n/a	24
Regular contact with trustees in other schools	18	23
Material from NZ Principals' Federation	21	16

Trustees in small towns were more likely to have had regular contact with trustees in other schools—probably reflecting their greater participation in cluster-based training, and to read material from NZSTA. State-integrated school trustees were less likely to mention getting guidance and support from the school staff, or reading NZEI or NZ Principals' Federation material. Trustees from fully funded schools were also less likely to be reading NZEI material.

Contact Between Trustees

A third of the trustees in this study had no contact with trustees who were on other school boards. Fifty-eight percent had some contact with trustees in other local schools, and 14 percent with trustees in other schools—much the same as in 1996. Trustees whose board was a member of NZSTA were more likely to have contact with trustees in other local schools (61 percent compared with 44 percent of trustees whose board did not belong to NZSTA). Trustees who had

no contact with trustees on other school boards were more likely to belong to urban boards, and least likely to belong to boards of schools with rolls under 35.

Use of the NZ School Trustees Association

Ninety percent of primary school boards belong to the NZ School Trustees Association (NZSTA). A much higher proportion of trustees read NZSTA material on a regular basis in 1999 than in 1996: 71 percent compared with 49 percent. Twenty-two percent of trustees sometimes read NZSTA material, and only 8 percent of trustees did not read it. Interestingly, 44 percent of trustees whose boards did not belong to NZSTA had access to NZSTA material on a regular basis.

Trustees were generally positive about the quality of NZSTA services provided free to boards, through a purchase agreement with the Ministry of Education. Many had had no direct contact themselves with NZSTA.

Table 21

Trustees' Views of the NZ School Trustees Association Services

Area	Excellent / Very Good %	Good %	Satisfactory %	Varies in Quality %	Needs Improvements %	Do Not Know/ Have No Experience %
Newsletters	20	45	17	5	1	7
Industrial/employment advice	17	25	13	2	1	37
EEO advice	10	24	11*-	1*-	2	48*+
Training	12	32	14	9	3*-	27*+
Consultation of board of trustees	10	26	14*+	2	2	40*-
Help desk	13	17	6	2	1	56
National representation of boards	7	23	14	2	2	47

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; '+' means an increase; '–' means a decrease.

NZSTA has argued for some time that it needs to provide a general support service for boards of trustees (most recently at its 1999 annual conference). Sixty-four percent of the trustees thought that a free general support service for boards, on issues other than industrial or personnel, was essential. Thirty-one percent thought such a service was desirable. Only 2 percent thought it was unnecessary.

Trustees who thought their school's funding was not adequate were more likely to describe such a service as essential (70 percent compared with 52 percent). Generally there was no relation between the expertise available on the board, and views of this support service, though those who thought it desirable rather than essential were somewhat more likely to have financial and property expertise on their boards.

Principals also used NZSTA for information and advice (85 percent). Eighteen percent of the principals described their experiences of NZSTA as excellent/very good, and 35 percent as good. Thirty-five percent found NZSTA service satisfactory, 5 percent had minor problems with it, and

3 percent, major problems. Principals who had experienced problems with NZSTA were concerned with a lack of balance in the organisation's views, sometimes finding them anti-teacher or not independent of government, thought that it was not always representative of boards' views, or found the organisation slow or unhelpful.

Other Services

Payroll Service

In 1996, the government privatised the central payroll service, used by centrally-funded schools. The transition was difficult, with schools having to spend considerable time sorting out the resulting problems of mispayment and nonpayment. Three years later, 22 percent of principals were still having problems with the payroll services, 17 percent minor, and 5 percent, major problems. Thirty percent of the principals described their dealings with the payroll service over the past year as excellent or very good, 34 percent as good, and 12 percent as satisfactory.

Maintenance—Multi-year Contracts

Twenty percent of schools also paid for a multi-year contract with a maintenance firm. Of these, 37 percent of principals thought they got good value for money. Forty-six percent of those using multi-year contracts for their school maintenance described the service they received as adequate. Eight percent noted price increases since they started using multi-year contracts, and 4 percent noted some quality issues. None of the principals rated their contracts as unsatisfactory.

Summary

- Although schools are now treated as individual units, few are isolated from advice, information, or support. Much of this comes free and informally, from the central government agencies, from the government-funded advisory services and NZSTA services, and from teacher and principal representative organisations.
- Principals draw substantial support from one another as well, through their own formal and informal networks. Rural and less experienced principals have fewer of these networks to draw on.
- Principals have ceased to be a major source of advice and information for teachers, apart from employment-related matters. Teachers have become more reliant on their colleagues at the same school; they have less access to colleagues at other schools—one of the costs of the reforms. Most teachers at the same school continue to provide each other with collegial support, sharing resources as well as information.
- It is clear that NZSTA plays an important role for school trustees in terms of providing them, and principals, as board representatives, with information and advice. All but a few trustees also support the extension of the government funding for NZSTA to provide them with a general support service.

- Such an increase in funding for a sector-wide service seems unlikely, given the government's determination to press ahead with dismantling the school advisory service, despite clear desires expressed by the teacher and principal representatives to maintain what is a much-used and, evident in the replies to this survey, much-valued service. While it is used by rural principals more than their urban counterparts, teachers' use of the advisory service does not differ substantially by location. As we shall see in the next chapter, the advisory service is also the prime source for principals' and teachers' professional development.

7 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING

There were some concerns at the start of the decentralisation reforms that boards of trustees might not see the reason for funding the continuing professional development which is generally considered essential to good teaching (and management), and the importance of professional development was emphasised in the government material and government-funded seminars which provided the first trustees with training for their new role. That concern was misplaced. The NZCER surveys show that ongoing professional development is almost universal, and that most trustees receive some training for their role.

But professional development is not funded solely by school operational grants or local fundraising. Schools have also benefited from an increasing amount of central government money being made available for professional development, linked to its own initiatives, particularly in curriculum. Much of this money is provided in the form of contestable contracts, with schools also nominating themselves to take part. Some of this money went to the advisory services, so that schools and principals could access professional development at little cost to themselves (and not on a user-pays basis, which could discourage those in most need of professional development). The government has also funded training for trustees and boards through contestable contracts.

Schools and the education system as a whole have also benefited by principal, teacher, and trustee willingness to give their own time and money to professional development.

Principals' Professional Development

Almost all principals in this survey (93 percent) had had some professional development over the past year, often using their own time (79 percent), and contributing toward its cost (39 percent, with 86 percent having some professional development paid for by their board of trustees, and 27 percent by the Ministry of Education). Slightly more principals were receiving some support for their professional development from the Ministry of Education than in 1996. This may reflect the higher proportion having IT professional development, which was the focus of Ministry of Education curriculum contracts, and included in the new IT strategy. Principals of very low-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to be making a contribution themselves (52 percent).

School advisers (the school support service) were principals' main source of professional development. Professional organisations also played a role. Quite a few received professional development as part of a school cluster. Despite the recent emphasis on IT, few principals were using the Internet for their own professional development.

Table 22

Sources of Principals' Professional Development

Source	% (n=262)
Advisers	76
Consultant	36
Teacher education provider	33
Conference in NZ	31
Cluster	28
NZ Principals' Federation	27
NZEI	21
Principals' centre	15
NZSTA	15
Internet	6
Overseas conference	5

Rural and small-town principals were less likely to receive their professional development from the NZ Principals' Federation or the Principals' Centre, or to attend conferences, either in New Zealand or overseas.

Principals of fully funded schools were more likely to attend conferences in New Zealand (44 percent), and less likely to take part in clusters for their professional development (18 percent).

The year after the reforms were introduced, 1990, was the peak year for principals' professional development in their new management and administration responsibilities. Since then, there has been very little change in what principals decide they need to focus on, what is available in the way of courses, and external Ministry of Education funding. The exceptions for 1999 are the leap between 1996 and 1999 in IT professional development, and increased interest in legal obligations and employment/industrial relations, as these become more important aspects of school responsibilities.

Table 23

Areas of Principals' Professional Development

Area	1990 % (n=207)	1991 % (n=186)	1993 % (n=191)	1996 % (n=181)	1999 % (n=262)
Curriculum area	60	47	46	49	54
Management/administration	75	45	46	46	40
Performance management[a]	-	-	-	-	73
School self-review	-	43	28	43	48
Principal's role in general	68	51	59	41	48
Educational leadership	-	19	50	39	37
Policy development	-	36	29	35	36
Computers/IT	-	-	-	28	60
Accounting/budgeting/financial	55	26	25	17	24
Legal obligations	-	-	-	15	25
Employment/industrial relations	-	-	20	14	27
Community consultation	33	15	9	8	13
Maori issues	-	9	10	7	5
Treaty of Waitangi	38	7	7	5	8
Equity	-	9	7	3	6
Negotiation/mediation skills[a]	-	-	-	-	13
Communication skills[a]	-	-	-	-	12

n=new question in 1999 survey.

Eighty-six percent of the principals wanted to continue their professional development over the next two years. Four percent of the principals said they had no energy left after work, and 3 percent each had no time, no need, or could not access the professional development they would like.

The next table shows a consistent level of interest (post-1990) in some topics, such as school development, educational leadership, and financial planning. Principals may feel more confident now about school self-review. Information technology dominates their interests for future professional development.

Table 24

Principals' Priorities for Their Professional Development

Area	1990 (n=207) %	1991 (n=186) %	1993 (n=191) %	1996 (n=181) %	1999 (n=262) %
School development	51	40	60	50	40
School self-review	56	59	55	48	33
Educational leadership	37	29	40	39	45
Legal aspects	-	31	35	27	23
Financial planning	42	32	29	23	21
Administration	32	20	24	21	15
School relationships	-	16	21	18	15
Property management	-	-	13	13	12
Industrial aspects	-	-	-	11	10
Multicultural issues	-	-	-	8	5
Maori issues	-	-	15	8	7
Performance management[n]	-	-	-	-	25
Information technology[n]	-	-	-	-	57
Curriculum area[n]	-	-	-	-	29

n = new question in 1999 survey.

Teachers' Professional Development

Only 2 percent of the teachers had had no professional development in the previous 12 months. The subjects covered show that curriculum areas remain dominant, reflecting Ministry of Education professional development contracts.

Table 25

Teachers' Professional Development 1999

Area	% (n = 396)
Technology	51
Social studies	44
English	40
Computers	37
Mathematics	29
Health	27
Teacher appraisal	26
Student assessment	23
Physical education	23
Child behaviour	19
Special needs students	17
Art	17
School development	16
Science	15
Management	14
Classroom management	10
Tutor support	8
Maori language	6
Administration	5
Infolink/information skills/library management	4
Reading recovery	4
Interpersonal skills	3
Motivation/learning styles	3

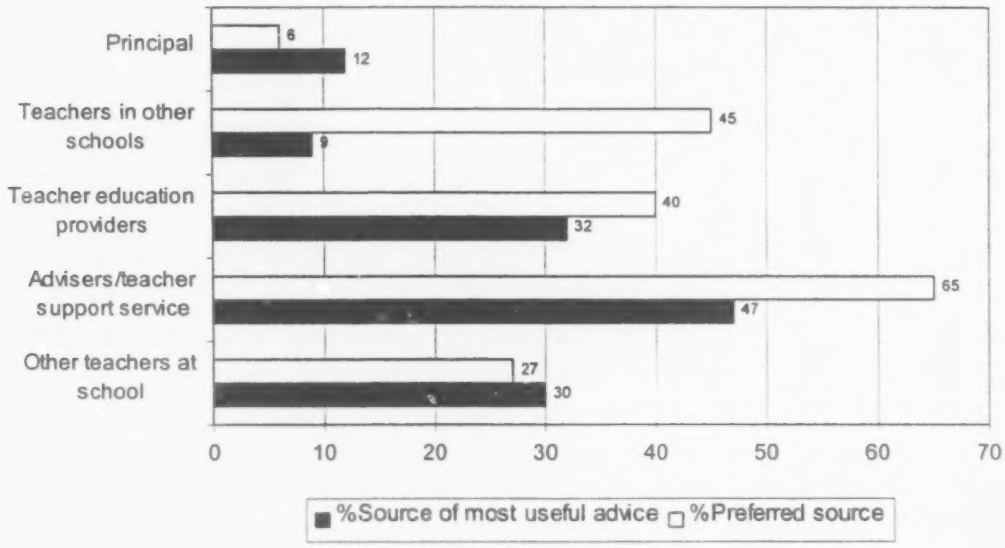
On average, teachers had professional development in three to four areas.

The main topics covered in their professional development that teachers found most useful were English, social studies, technology, and computers (19–20 percent each). The second cluster of topics was mathematics, student assessment, teacher appraisal, and children's behaviour (9–14 percent each). Between 5 to 7 percent of teachers found their most useful professional development of the year in science, health, special needs students, physical education, management, and art.

Advisers were the main source of teachers' most useful professional development , and their preferred source. The preference for advisers is in fact stronger than in previous surveys. There was also an increase in preference for professional development with teacher education providers.

Figure 10

Sources of Teachers' Most Useful Advice and Preferred Sources



Rural school teachers were less likely to mention other teachers in their school (56 percent).

Advisers and the teacher support service were just as likely to be mentioned by teachers in all areas—not just rural areas.

Teachers would also like more professional development from their colleagues in other schools than they actually receive: a persistent refrain throughout the NZCER reform surveys. They value working with people who have current or recent classroom experience. However, opportunities to work across schools seem to have diminished over the decade, as schools concentrate on their own situation and development.

Fifty-four percent of teachers were also responsible for passing on their training to others in the school, much the same as in previous surveys.

Teachers began undertaking more professional development out of school hours early in the reforms. In 1999, 69 percent had used after-school hours for their professional development, 32 percent, evenings, 26 percent, weekends, and 29 percent, school holidays (up from 19 percent in 1996).

Teachers' professional development in their own time was less likely than principals' professional development to be funded by their school's board of trustees (47 percent, slightly down from 53 percent in 1996). Thirty-two percent paid for their own, 7 percent had financial support from the Ministry of Education, and 2 percent from a voluntary organisation.

The next table shows what teachers studied in their own time in 1999, and what they would like to study. Curriculum remains the major focus of teachers' professional development in their own time, including information technology, the curriculum statement which is currently being implemented. There appears to be a growing interest in assessment.

Table 26

Teachers' Professional Development in Their Own Time

Topic	Studied %	Would Like to Study %
Specific curriculum area	32	35
Information and communication technology	20	24
Learning styles	14	-
Child behaviour/behaviour management/bullying	10	15
Assessment	7	18
Outdoor education	7	3
Special education	6	10
Interpersonal skills	5	4
Administration/management skills	5	9
Teacher appraisal/performance management	5	5
Thinking skills	4	-
Educational leadership	4	10
English as a second language	3	5
Problem-solving approach	3	-
Education administration reforms	2	1

Fifty-two percent of the teachers intended doing some professional development in their own time over the next year, and another 30 percent were unsure. This level of interest in pursuing professional development out of school hours has remained much the same over the decade.

The main reasons for being unsure or not intending to undertake some professional development in their own time were a lack of energy after work (20 percent), or a lack of time (17 percent). Some teachers could not afford their preferred professional development (13 percent), or found it too distant to access (11 percent). Only 5 percent saw no need for them to undertake more professional development (down from 11 percent in 1996, and probably reflecting the decline in teachers with lengthy teaching experience).

Trustees' Training

Most of the trustees (78 percent) had had some formal training or support for their work over the past year. Fifty percent had had sessions with trustees from other schools in their training cluster (32 percent a series of sessions, 18 percent, one-off sessions). Thirty-five percent had had sessions for their whole board focused on their particular school (a series of sessions for 26 percent, and one-off sessions for 19 percent). Twenty-five percent had had individual training focused on their particular role on their board (10 percent a series of sessions, 18 percent, one-off sessions). Trustees in minor urban areas were most likely to have had their training in a cluster (52 percent), or to have had a series of individual sessions focused on the role of the board (21 percent).

Most trustees had taken part in just one form of training, but 23 percent had taken part in two forms of training, and 10 percent, three or four form of training.

Only 2 percent of the trustees had paid for their own training. The Ministry of Education (39 percent) and the trustees' schools (32 percent) were the main sources, with a few mentioning community groups or business sponsorship.

The main source of their training was NZSTA (33 percent). Others were Multiserve (19 percent), teacher education providers (19 percent), individual consultants (15 percent), and private companies (5 percent). Training sessions with individual consultants or private companies were more likely to be one-off sessions focused on the particular school.

Few trustees were unhappy with their training (4 percent), though 24 percent would like more training.

Trustees' view on their training were generally unrelated to their use of other sources of advice or support over the year, although trustees whose training had not met their needs were less likely than others to have read material from ERO or NZEI.

The next table shows the areas that most interest trustees. It is interesting to see children's behaviour among the topics of most interest; this may reflect its prominence among the issues which parents raise with boards of trustees.

Table 27

Topics in Which Trustees Would Like Training

Topic	1999 % (n = 376)
School self-review	28
School strategic planning	27
Children's behaviour	22
Health and safety	22
Financial management/planning	21
Curriculum	19
Role of the school trustee	18
Property management	18
Communication and interpersonal relationships	18
Assessment	17
Role of the principal	16
Industrial relations	11
Equal employment opportunities	11
Making appointments	11
Treaty of Waitangi	9

The topics which interest trustees currently are little different from the ones which attracted trustees in the 1996 NZCER survey. Sixteen percent of the trustees did not want further training, much as in previous years. Most were interested in training on at least two topics (66 percent).

Thirty-eight percent of the trustees had no preference as to the provider of their training. Twenty-six percent chose NZSTA, 22 percent the Ministry of Education, 16 percent educational institutions, 13 percent individual consultants, and 10 percent Multiserve. Between 5–8 percent

each would like training from other trustees on their school board, other trustees, NZEI, or a private firm. This pattern is much the same as in 1996. Comparison of whom trustees had had their training from, and whom they would prefer, showed no clear preferences, or no greater satisfaction with one provider over another.

Summary

- Professional development occurs almost universally for principals and teachers, with many making their own contribution to its time and financial costs. Teachers remain focused on curriculum and pedagogy; principals are more likely to be focusing on management or IT.
- Principals and teachers both find the advisory service to be the major source of their professional development. Putting advisory service funding into school operational grants on a per-teacher basis may cut back the professional development available to teachers and principals if the school does not receive sufficient funding to pay for other sources of professional development, and if these are more expensive than the present advisory service.
- Just over three-quarters of the trustees, many in their first term, had also had some formal training for their work in the past year, through cluster sessions, and training undertaken as a board, focusing on their particular school. Few trustees paid for their training. Most were happy with the quality of their training, and many would like to go on with further sessions, mainly on the diverse areas of their responsibilities, but also showing an interest in knowing more about children's behaviour and the curriculum.
- It is clear from this study that much of the professional development and training taken by people in schools is dependent on funding additional to their operational grant, through participation in contestable contracts, or by the teaching professionals funding their continued development out of their own pockets.

8 SCHOOL BOARD COMPOSITION

In 1989, school committees were replaced by boards of trustees. School committees often had non-parents on them, some long-serving, and were elected by the local householders and parents who came to the school's annual meeting. They were mainly concerned with property maintenance, including the appointment of cleaners, and fundraising. School committee members tended to be better educated and on higher incomes than the communities they represented, and to contain more men than women.

Boards of trustees took on greater responsibility, including the appointment of all school staff, the development of the school charter and policies, and the school budget. There was a central emphasis on parents rather than the wider community. Primary school boards consisted of five parents elected only by other (current) parents at the school, in elections held every three years, the principal, and a staff representative (usually a teacher). State-integrated schools also had proprietor's representatives. Boards could co-opt members, to enhance community representation, or bring in people with useful skills. The Education Amendment Act 1992 allowed non-parents to be nominated for election, but few non-parents have joined boards of trustees as elected rather than co-opted or appointed trustees.

The fourth election for boards of trustees took place in 1998, and, like earlier elections, Ministry of Education-funded campaigns through a contract with NZSTA were run ahead of nomination time to encourage a wide range of parents to put themselves forward, and to ensure that all schools had sufficient trustees on their boards. Only 6 percent of schools had fewer nominations than places; a further 25 percent had the same nominations as places, indicating less interest in the role than in 1989, when almost every school had more nominations than places.

Who Are the Trustees?

Gender

Fifty-six percent of the trustees responding were female, and 41 percent male (3 percent did not give their gender). This is a reversal from 1996, when 56 percent were male, and 42 female. While this shows a higher response rate from women than men (Ministry of Education figures for school trustees at the end of 1998 show that women formed 52 percent of trustees), this also reflects the increase in women trustees since 1989, when women were 44 percent of (elected) trustees. There were no gender differences related to length of service as a trustee, average hours on trustee work, or interest in serving another term as a school trustee.

Age

Few trustees are aged under 30 (2 percent), or more than 50 (9 percent, an increase on the 4 and 5 percent in 1993 and 1996). Forty-three percent were in their thirties, and 44 percent, in their forties. Women trustees tended to be younger than men (53 percent in their thirties compared with 33 percent of men).

Ethnicity

Seventy-nine percent of the trustees gave their ethnic group as European/Pakeha, 11 percent Maori, 4 percent "New Zealander", and 2 percent Pacific Island. These figures are comparable with the Ministry of Education figures for trustees at the end of 1998. Compared with the 1996 Census data for families with dependent children, trustees continue to provide an over-representation of European families (66 percent).[14] There were no differences between ethnic groups related to length of time served as a trustee, or average hours a week on school board work. However, Maori trustees were more likely than European/Pakeha to be interested in standing again (56 percent), and more likely to have been co-opted to their school board (23 percent).

Maori comprised 41 percent of the trustees in decile 1–2 schools, 12 percent in decile 3–4 schools, and 4 percent in decile 5–10 schools. They also formed a higher proportion of the trustees in provincial city schools.

Education

The next table shows that, like their school committee forebears, school trustees tend to have more education than parents as a whole, or for the age-group most trustees come from. Nineteen percent of female trustees had university degrees compared with 10 percent of the age-group 25-50 in the 1996 Census, and only 10 percent had no qualification compared with 26 percent of the age-group 25-50 in the 1996 Census.

Table 28

Highest Education Qualification of Parents and Trustees

	NZCER Survey 1999					
	Trustees %		Parents %		Census 1996* %	
Qualification	Female	Male	Female (n=694)	Male (n=199)	Female	Male
University degree	19	22	10	18	10	12
Nursing/teaching certificate/diploma	15	2	15	9	11	6
Trades certificate/diploma	13	31	14	35	9	17
UE/higher school certificate/sixth form certificate	16	17	23	11	12	11
School certificate	16	8	24	16	15	10
No qualification	10	10	17	13	26	26

* For age-group 25–50, for these qualification categories only.

Trustees in decile 1–2 schools were more likely to have no qualifications (22 percent compared with 7 percent of trustees in decile 3–10 schools), and less likely to have university degrees (9 percent compared with 22 percent). High-Maori-enrolment schools were just as likely as very low-

[14] Table 13, Statistics NZ 1996 Census report *Families and Households*, p. 42.

Maori-enrolment schools to have trustees with university degrees, but moderate and high-Maori-enrolment schools were twice as likely as very low and low-Maori-enrolment schools to have trustees with no qualifications.

Socioeconomic Status

The next table shows that in terms of their socioeconomic status, trustees have tended to be more representative than school committee members, and to have become increasingly more representative of parents as time goes by, with some continuing under-representation of parents in semi-skilled and unskilled work.

Table 29

Trustees' and Parents' Socioeconomic Status

			NZCER Survey					
	School Committee Members 1977		Trustees				Parents	
			Male		Female		Male	Female
	Male	Female[10]	1989	1999	1989	1999	1999	1999
Elley Irving Group	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1-2 (professional)	64	33	43	27	39	15	25	12
3-4 (skilled)	32	60	44	48	48	45	45	34
5-6 (semi-skilled and unskilled)	14	8	5	12	6	11	19	16
Unemployed/benefit	–	–	–	3	–	0	7	3

The Elley-Irving scale rates occupations by a weighting of income and educational level required for the work. It has been used extensively in New Zealand educational research, and is used here because it allows comparison with the available data on school committees.

Trustees at decile 9–10 schools were more likely to have professional occupations (35 percent), and those who were unemployed were all on decile 1–2 school boards of trustees. Otherwise the distribution of occupations was pretty even for schools in different socioeconomic communities.

Trustees' Responsibilities on their Board

Only 3 percent of trustees did not have any specific responsibility on their board. Thirty-three percent of trustees took one area of responsibility, 21 percent two areas of responsibility, 18 percent, three areas, and 25 percent, four or more. There are more trustees undertaking three or four areas of responsibility than there were in 1996 (43 percent compared with 28 percent).

For the first time in the NZCER surveys, school chairpersons are just as likely to be women as men. Women were still more likely than men to be secretary (24 percent compared with 4

[10] Female school committee members were assigned their partner's socioeconomic status. That has not been done in the NZCER survey where mothers were at home full time.

percent), take on equal employment opportunities responsibilities (21 percent compared with 10 percent), liaison with the PTA (19 percent compared with 9 percent), public relations (15 percent compared with 8 percent), and board training (14 percent compared with 6 percent). Men were more likely to take on property responsibilities (50 percent compared with 15 percent).

A higher proportion of Maori trustees had responsibility for finance on their board (44 percent compared with 23 percent of their European/Pakeha colleagues), for Maori issues (28 percent compared with 3 percent), and for special needs (7 percent compared with 4 percent).

Boards did not have experience and skills related to all the aspects of their work, but most trustees did not see the need to have more members with related experience and skills. The next table compares present 1999 trustees' perceptions with 1997 school boards' perceptions. While there are some consistencies between the two, current boards appear to have fewer people with comprehensive experience and skills. This may reflect the change in trustees which occurred at the last board election; it may also show that individual trustees may not be aware of all the skills and experiences of their fellows.

Table 30

Experience and Skills on Boards

Area	Have		Need	
	1997 Primary Boards (n=884) %	1999 Trustees (n=376) %	1997 Primary Boards (n=884) %	1999 Trustees (n=376) %
Educational	88	49	18	15
Property maintenance and repair	79	61	22	13
Financial	70	62	31	17
Human resources/personnel	68	50	31	18
Industrial relations	34	23	43	24
Legal	17	14	55	32
Information technology	–	–	–	34

Trustees at the smallest schools reported less expertise on their board than did those at larger schools in three areas of board work: finance, human resources, and industrial relations. Financial expertise was most likely in decile 9–10 schools (73 percent), but legal skills less likely in decile 7–10 schools (8 percent compared with 17 percent of decile 1–6 schools). Nonetheless, trustees at high-decile schools were less interested than others in gaining more expertise. Decile 1–2 trustees were most interested in gaining legal and educational expertise on their board. Moderate and high-Maori-enrolment schools showed more interest than low and very low-Maori-enrolment schools in gaining educational expertise (20 percent compared with 10 percent).

On the whole there were few differences in the roles of trustees associated with their employment or occupation, although mothers without paid employment were more likely to liaise with the school's PTA (fundraising), and those in unskilled work, less likely to take on staffing or equal employment opportunities responsibilities. There were no differences related to

employment type or status in trustees' length of time on the board, average hours devoted to trustee work, willingness to serve another term, or co-option.

Turnover of School Trustees

The fourth general election for trustees was held in 1998. Previous NZCER surveys held a year after trustee elections showed that around a third of trustees joined their boards at each election, a turnover rate comparable with that for the school committees which preceded boards of trustees. In 1999, however, 49 percent of trustees were new to their boards.

The change appears to have come from the loss of trustees who had served five years or more (29 percent in 1996, and 18 percent in 1999). Twenty-nine percent of trustees had served on their board for two to four years, much the same as in 1996.

Chairpersons of boards were more likely to be long serving: 38 percent had spent more than five years on their board.

There were some differences related to school characteristics. Urban trustees were more likely to have joined their board at the last election. Trustees from decile 1–4 schools were more likely to have served five or more years (31 percent).

Thirty-five percent of the trustees responding intended to stand again in the next trustee elections in 2001, slightly higher than the 27 percent in 1996. Another 33 percent were unsure, and 30 percent were not intending to stand again, lower than the 40 percent in 1996. There could well be more continuity for school board membership between now and the next election of trustees than there was between the 1995 and 1998 elections. Trustees from moderate and high-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to think they would be standing again (41 percent).

The main reasons for trustees wanting to stand again were that they enjoyed the work or felt they had something to offer the school (20 percent), and that they would still have a child at the school (6 percent).

Children moving from the school was one of two main reasons for trustees' decisions not to stand again (13 percent); the time it took to be a trustee was the second (12 percent). Other reasons were that the trustees felt they had been on the school board long enough (7 percent), the board would benefit from having new members (3 percent), or that it was time for others to take their turn and serve the school (3 percent). A few mentioned frustrations or difficulties between board members.

There were fewer resignations from boards than in 1996, when 67 percent of boards lost at least one member. The 1999 figure of 54 percent was closer to the earlier years of the decentralisation. Twenty-three percent had lost one member, 15 percent, two members, and 11 percent, three or more. State-integrated school trustees were more likely to report no resignations from their board in the last 12 months (17 percent).

The main reasons for trustees resigning were because of changes in their paid work. Twenty percent of the resignations were because of their paid workload, and 7 percent because of job transfers. Twenty percent of the resignations were because trustees shifted out of the area. Eighteen percent left because their child had left the school. Between 4 and 7 percent left because of conflict on the board, disillusionment, ill health, or family obligations. These reasons are much the same as in previous years.

Twenty percent of boards did not replace members who resigned during the year, rather more than the 11 percent in 1996. Thirty-two percent of the boards replaced by co-option, 30 percent by appointment, and only 23 percent used the more costly option of elections.

Decile 1–2 schools were less likely to replace members who resigned (29 percent, compared with 8 percent of decile 3–10 schools), as were fully funded schools (17 percent compared with 8 percent of centrally funded schools, although fully funded schools were less likely to have lost a trustee over the year (40 percent compared with 54 percent of fully funded schools). State-integrated schools were more likely to use appointment and co-option to replace resigning trustees.

Co-option

Eleven percent of the trustees responding were co-opted. This is somewhat lower than previous years. Forty-nine percent of the schools represented by trustees responding had no co-opted trustees, somewhat more than the 38 percent in 1996. Thirty-four percent had one co-opted position, 16 percent had two or three, and 2 percent, four or five. High-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to have co-opted trustees (61 percent), as were schools in city and minor urban areas.

The next table shows a decline in the use of co-option to gain property or secretarial skills.

Table 31

Co-opted Trustees' Responsibilities

Responsibilities	1989 % (n=267)	1990 % (n=215)	1993 % (n=157)	1996 % (n=168)	1999 % (n=178)
Property/maintenance	14	23	35	37	26
Finance/fundraising	-	-	17	21	20
Treasurer	32	16	22	18	22
Maori liaison	18	27	24	15	19
Secretary	23	23	20	24	16
Community consultation	3	9	15	16	10
Public relations/school promotion	-	-	11	7	10
Liaison with PTA/home and school association/school council	3	10	11	8	8
Chairperson	-	-	-	8	8
Staffing	3	7	7	10	7
Liaison with ethnic communities	7	8	5	4	7
Board training	-	-	4	4	3
Special needs	-	-	5	1	3
EEO	-	-	5	-	3
Curriculum	-	-	-	7	3
Industrial relations	-	-	4	6	2

Board Size

The Education Amendment Act (no. 4), 1991, allowed boards to decide how many elected parent representatives they wished to have, in response to the difficulties of some small schools in finding five parents willing to serve on the board of trustees. The current regulatory review also raises the question of whether all schools can find sufficient people willing to take on the responsibility of school board membership. Twelve percent of the boards represented by the trustees responding had only three or four members other than the principal and staff representative, much as in 1996. Forty-eight percent of schools had the original complement of five trustees, 33 percent had six or seven, and 8 percent, eight or nine members. While more boards had more than five members in the early years of the reforms, there is no indication from these figures that an increasing number of boards are finding it difficult to involve at least five people as trustees.

School size was related to the size of the school board (other than principal and staff representative). Twenty-one percent of the trustees from schools with rolls under 35 had more than five trustees on their board, rising to 57 percent of the trustees from schools with rolls of 300 or more. Rural schools were less likely to have more than five trustees on their boards. Eighty-three percent of state-integrated school trustees said their board had had eight or nine trustees on their board compared with 3 percent of state schools.

Non-parents on Boards

Despite the 1992 legislation allowing non-parents to put themselves forward for election to boards, there has been little change in the proportion of boards which have non-parents as members. Fifty-nine percent of boards consisted only of parents (other than the principal and staff representative). Twenty-six percent of boards had one non-parent on them, 10 percent had two, and 4 percent, four or more.

Boards which were more likely to have non-parents serving on them were decile 1–2 schools (69 percent compared with 36 percent of other schools), and those with moderate or high Maori enrolment. Rural schools were less likely to have non-parents on their board compared with schools in other locations (31 percent).

Is There a Call to Change Board Composition?

The current regulatory review ((Ministry of Education 1999) suggests that the time has come to modify the structure of boards, and allow more flexibility in terms of board composition, and the number of schools a board might be responsible for.

If legislation were changed to allow variation in board composition, it seems unlikely that there would in fact be much change. Seventy-eight percent of principals and 74 percent of trustees said their board composition would stay as it was. Two percent of both groups thought the school would operate without a board of trustees. Four percent of both groups thought that most of their board would be appointed rather than elected. Two percent each of both groups thought that their board would no longer have any parents of children attending the school, or that it would consist mainly of the representatives of an iwi runanga or similar ethnic group. Four percent of trustees thought the staff representative position would go, but only 1 percent of principals. Three percent of trustees thought the principal would lose voting rights, compared with one principal.

The current school board was not seen as the only or most appropriate decision maker on any changes to board composition and governance structures at their school. Forty percent of both trustees and principals would use a survey of parents of school and preschool children in the local area. Around a third of both groups thought the decision should be made through consultation between the local school boards and the Ministry of Education. Thirty-two percent of trustees did think their current board should make these decisions, compared with 23 percent of principals. Government legislation was supported by 24 percent of principals and 13 percent of trustees. Consultation between local school boards was least supported, by around 10 percent of each group. Urban principals were more in favour of deciding changes to board composition through government legislation (29 percent compared with 17 percent of rural principals), and less in favour of using parent surveys (33 percent compared with 4 9 percent of rural principals).

Principals as Voting Members of Boards

Almost all principals responding thought that principals should remain voting members of their school board (95 percent), with the rest unsure, and most trustees (86 percent, with a further 7 percent unsure).

The main reasons given by principals and trustees were that the principal's professional judgment, knowledge, and experience were essential for the board to work well, and that the principal was the school's leader or chief executive officer. Others were that the principal was a full board member, that retaining the principal's voting rights retained the principle of partnership between school professionals and school trustees, and that the board's decisions needed to be workable.

Interest in School Clusters

School clusters would allow one board to take responsibility for more than the current four schools allowed for under the Education Act. Around half of the principals and trustees felt their school board would not be interested in joining a formal cluster of schools. Most of those who expressed interest looked to retain their own principal and board, which runs counter to the existing provision (Education Act 1989, Section 94).

Table 32

School Board Interest in Joining Formal Cluster of Schools

Interest	Principals (n=262) %	Trustees (n=376) %
If each school retains its own board	34	34
If each school has representation on cluster board	20	22
If each school retains its own principal	40	31
If the cluster has one principal	2	3
If the cluster is comprised of primary schools only	19	23
If the cluster includes secondary schools	3	4
If the cluster includes private schools	2	2
Depends on size of cluster	24	28
Depends on distance between schools in cluster	19	26
Not interested in joining formal cluster	35	30
Not sure	22	20

Interest in clusters was highest in the smallest schools. Only 19 percent of the principals of schools with rolls under 35 said their board would not be interested in joining schools in a formal cluster, compared with 34 percent of those in schools with rolls of 35 to 299, and 45 percent of those in schools with rolls of 300 or more. Interest was also higher in rural schools (27 percent of principals said their board would not be interested in joining a formal cluster, compared with 42 percent of principals of urban schools). This raises some interesting questions of how such clusters would work, given that many rural and small schools are not geographically close.

There was more interest shown by schools with very low or low Maori enrolment in clusters composed of primary schools only, than those with moderate or high Maori enrolment (23 percent compared with 13 percent).

Reasons for board views on clusters were given by a few respondents. Those who were interested in clusters noted the value of sharing ideas and resources, and hoped it would reduce the administrative workload for principals, or board workloads, and that schools could gain financially through economies of scale. Those who were unsure felt it was important for schools to retain their individual identity.

Amalgamation

Few schools showed any interest in amalgamating with other schools. Main reasons given by those who were interested or unsure were falling school rolls, t[illegible] from sharing expertise and costs, from exposing students to a wider world, or allowing them more continuity in their schooling.

Table 33

Interest in Amalgamation with Another Local School or Schools.

Interest	Principals (n=262) %	Trustees (n=376) %
Interested	8	6
Depends on funding	7	8
Not interested	69	69
Not sure	10	12

Amalgamation did not appeal more to principals of rural and small schools, even although they showed more interest than others in clusters. Most of the trustees who thought their board might be interested in amalgamation were in rural areas. Very low-Maori-enrolment schools (which are often in rural areas) showed a little more interest in amalgamation than others (13 percent).

Summary

- Boards of trustees appear to becoming gradually more representative of parents, at least in terms of gender, ethnicity, and occupation. They are still more likely to be better educated than parents overall. While low-decile schools tend to have more trustees with lower levels of education, and fewer professionals, the spread of education and socioeconomic status appears fairly even for different kinds of schools.
- While women are now just as likely as men to take the role of chairperson, board roles remain somewhat more differentiated by gender than does parent involvement in schools (*see* next chapter).
- Most trustees appear confident about the range of expertise on their board, although there is higher interest among trustees at low-decile and moderate and high-Maori-enrolment schools in having more educational expertise, or legal expertise. Interest is highest in having trustees with legal and IT expertise (two of the most costly areas to buy in).

- The last trustee elections saw a much higher proportion of new trustees than previous elections, although there may be a correspondingly higher retention rate for trustees at the next election. Board size remains much the same, as does the proportion of non-parents serving on boards. However, there are indications that boards may be attracting less interest than previously: more trustees taking on three or more areas of responsibility than before, more boards not replacing those who leave (mainly for employment reasons or because the trustee no longer has a child attending the school), and fewer co-opted trustees. The last elections also saw around a third of boards of trustees just filling their slate, or not having quite enough people to do so.
- Contrary to the premises of the regulatory review, few boards of trustees show interest in changing their structure. The survey results show that trustees and principals believe that principals should remain voting members; clusters appeal only if schools can retain their individual identity and governance structures; and amalgamation appeals only to a few schools. Interest is however higher in small, rural schools.

9 PARENT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Parental Involvement in Schools

One of the aims of the decentralisation reforms was to extend parent involvement in schools. The 1989 NZCER survey showed that parental involvement of some kind was high (86 percent). But fewer parents are in fact involved in their child's primary school now than at the start of the school reforms (65 percent). Then as now, the main forms of parental involvement are occasional, contributing to fundraising, or helping with school trips, although even here the proportion of parents who provide help has dropped by around 20 percent over the last ten years.

Table 34

Parental Involvement in Their Child's School

Type of Involvement	% (n=897)
Contributed to fundraising	50
Helped with school trips	48
Helped with sport	25
Helped in classroom	22
Helped with arts and craft	10
Helped with cultural activities	7
Helped with repairs and maintenance	7
On PTA/school council	7
Helped in the library	4
Helped with playground duty	3
Helped develop/revise school policy	3
On board of trustees	2
Helped develop curriculum	2
Helped with accounts/clerical work	1
On board of trustees subcommittee	1

Issues Affecting Involvement

Much of the decline in parental involvement is for women. This may reflect the growth in women's employment over the last decade (in 1986, 56 percent of mothers in two-parent families were in paid employment, compared with 65 percent in 1996). Compared with 1989, around a third fewer women were helping with sport or in the classroom. Help with the library and art and craft activity also dropped. These decreases in women's involvement meant that some of the gender differences which had been apparent at the start of the reform had gone by 1999. Women were still more likely to help in the classroom, and fathers to help with property maintenance.

Pakeha/European parents were more likely to be involved in their child's school than those from other ethnic groups. Unemployed parents or those receiving state benefits were less likely than those in employment to take a part in their child's school.

Parental involvement was higher for those with children in years 0–3 than in years 4–8.

Parental involvement was highest in schools with rolls of under 100 (94 percent), and for contributions to fundraising, helping with school trips, with arts and craft, the library, cultural activities, school maintenance, and the PTA. As school size increased, parental help in classrooms and sport decreased.

Ninety percent of rural school parents were involved in some way with their child's school. They had a wider range of involvement too, with high proportions involved in school fundraising (75 percent), school trips (70 percent), school maintenance (30 percent), and serving on the school's PTA (22 percent). City school parents were least likely to be involved with school sport (20 percent).

Parental involvement in their child's school was related to school decile, rising from 54 percent of parents at decile 1–2 schools to 75 percent at decile 9–10 schools. Some kinds of involvement also showed an increase as school decile increased: contributions to fundraising, helping in the classroom, helping with school trips, and serving on the school PTA/school council. Similar patterns were evident in relation to the proportion of Maori enrolment in a school.

The main reason given by parents for their lack of involvement in their child's school was their lack of time (78 percent of those with no involvement). Seventeen percent had not been asked to help, and another 15 percent preferred to let the school get on with the job on its own. Perhaps some schools could be doing a little more to involve some parents. But they cannot do anything about parents' lack of time.

Eight percent of parents felt uncomfortable in the school, and 5 percent felt the school did not want parent involvement. Pakeha/European parents were less likely to give lack of time as their reason for not having any involvement in their child's school (20 percent compared with 32 percent of others), or that they would prefer to let the school get on with the job (3 percent compared with 10 percent of others). Maori parents were more likely not to be involved because they did not feel comfortable in their child's school (8 percent compared with 2 percent). Unemployed parents or those on state benefits were more likely to say no one had asked them (19 percent).

Those with no qualifications themselves were more likely than those with some qualification to say they were not comfortable in the school, 7 percent, or that they preferred to let the school get on with the job (9 percent).

Parents in decile 1–2 schools were most likely to lack time to be involved in the school (31 percent, decreasing to 18 percent of decile 9-10 school parents). Most of those who were not comfortable in school were from decile 1-2 schools, and these schools also had a higher proportion who preferred to let the school get on with the job (10 percent compared with 3 percent for decile 3-10 schools). Parents in very low-Maori-enrolment schools were most likely to lack time for school involvement (17 percent), and parents in high-Maori-enrolment schools more likely to prefer to let the school get on with the job (9 percent compared with 4 percent).

Rural school parents (7 percent), and parents at schools with rolls of under 100 (5 percent) were less likely to lack time for school involvement. The larger the school, the more likely it was that parents would feel that they had not been asked to get involved in the school.

Parental Help in Classrooms—Teachers' Perspectives

Parental help in classrooms has fluctuated over the last decade, with the highest point in 1989 when 61 percent of teachers said they had some parental help in their classroom. In 1999, 22 percent of the teachers had regular parental help in their classroom, and 29 percent sometimes had parental help. The next table shows the kind of help parents gave in classrooms, and the kind of help teachers would like from parents.

Table 35

Parental Help in Classrooms

Type of Help	Available Help % (n=396)	Desirable Help % (n=396)
Helping individual children with their reading and language	29	31
Help with writing	18	26
Preparing classroom materials	18	27
Assisting children with special learning needs	4	17
Help with mathematics	7	16
Tikanga Maori	1	10
Maori language assistance	1	11
Clerical/administrative	4	5
Help with sports	12	15
Help with art or music	12	16
Help with computers	7	20
Help with behavioural problems	1	5
Publishing work	7	24

The younger the children, the more likely it was that teachers had regular classroom help from parents, decreasing from 45 percent of the new entrant teachers to 10 percent of year 7 and 8 teachers. The latter were also least likely to have parental help from time to time (15 percent). However, interest in having (some) more parental help was much the same across class levels, and it was unrelated to whether teachers currently had any help from parents. Forty-five percent of the teachers would like (more) help from parents.

Satisfaction With the Level of Parental Involvement

Parents

Sixty-four percent of parents responding were satisfied with the level of parental involvement in their child's school; 12 percent were not, and 21 percent were unsure. This is much the same picture as found in a national opinion poll conducted just before decentralisation began (Heylen, 1989). Comments made by parents focused on the fact that it was the same parents who helped each time, that some parents were not interested, and that it was difficult for employed parents to help. Some also noted that their school welcomed parental participation.

Trustees

Thirty-six percent of the trustees were generally satisfied with the level of parental involvement in their school, and 33 percent for some areas only. Twenty-four percent were not satisfied. The degree of satisfaction is somewhat higher than in 1996, and closer to the figures for 1993 and 1991. Dissatisfaction with the level of parental involvement in the school was highest in decile 1–2 schools (38 percent, compared with 10 percent of decile 9–10 trustees), and in high-Maori-enrolment schools (29 percent compared with 15 percent in very low-Maori-enrolment schools).

The next table shows that trustee interest in having practical help from parents has increased markedly since 1993, other than for policy development, board work, and curriculum development.

Table 36

Activities in Which Trustees Would Like To See More Parent Involvement

	1993 (n=292) %	1996 (n=270) %	1999 (n=376) %
Fundraising	26	64	59
School maintenance/working bees	20	43	60
Sport	19	39	38
Classroom help	20	37	33
School clubs/electives	15	31	27
Policy development	21	30	26
Board work	13	25	15
Curriculum development	14	16	9

Trustees in very low-Maori-enrolment schools were less likely to want more parental involvement (or support) in the areas mentioned. Interest in having more parental involvement was higher in decile 1–2 schools in the areas of board work, sport, and curriculum development. Trustees in provincial city schools were most keen on having more help with school maintenance and working bees (91 percent).

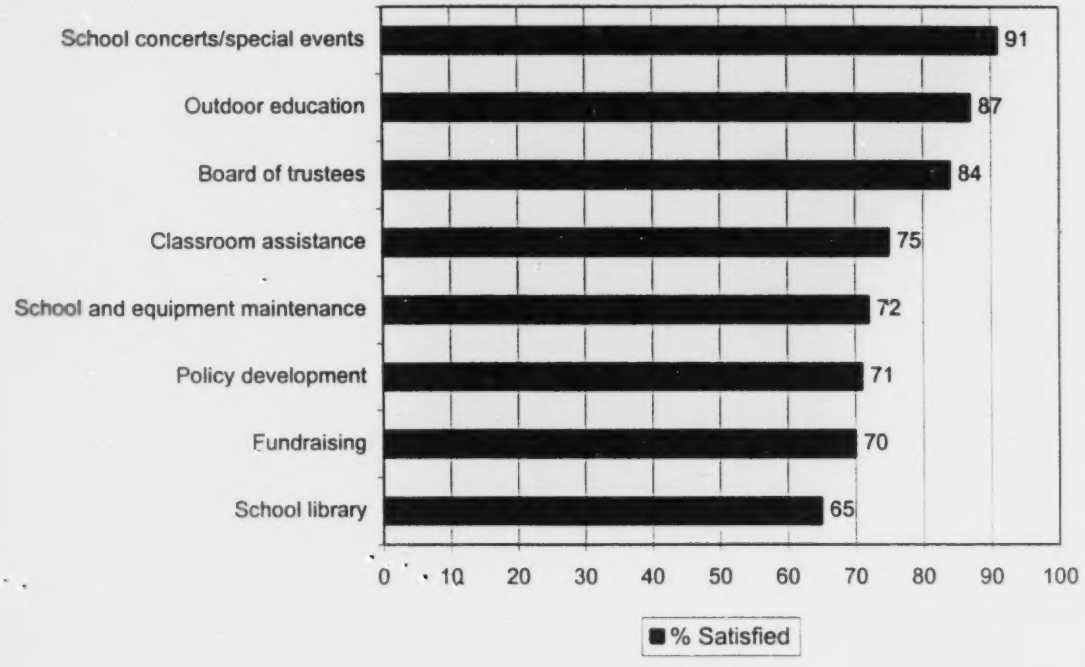
Principals

Most principals thought their school had an excellent/very good relationship with the parents of children attending (45 percent), or a good relationship (44 percent). Seven percent described it as satisfactory, and 3 percent noted minor problems in the school-parent relationship. Principals of decile 9-10 schools were most likely to see their school's relationship with its parents as excellent/very good (63 percent).

Most principals were satisfied with the level of parental involvement in their school, particularly for one-off events.

Figure 11

Prinicipals' Satisfaction with the Level of Parental Help in their School



Levels of principal satisfaction with parental involvement were much the same as they were in the 1993 and 1996 NZCER surveys, with the only increase being in the area of policy development (up from 51 percent in 1993).

Satisfaction with parental involvement in the school mirrored the school's socioeconomic decile, with principals of low-decile schools showing the least satisfaction for every aspect of school life asked about, other than outdoor education. Principals of high-Maori-enrolment schools also showed lower levels of satisfaction with parental support, other than special events and outdoor education.

Principals in rural schools were most satisfied with the level of help they had from parents, for classroom assistance and fundraising. Otherwise there were no differences related to school location in principals' perceptions of their parental and community support. This is an improvement over the 1996 NZCER survey finding that principals of small-town schools had more difficulty than others in getting parental help.

Thirty-one percent of principals had no difficulty getting help from parents for the school. Fifty-seven percent sometimes had problems, an increase from the 43 percent in 1991. Only 13 percent of the principals had general difficulty getting help from parents, much the same as in previous NZCER surveys. Twenty-eight percent of decile 1–2 schools had difficulty getting help from parents, and 27 percent of high-Maori-enrolment schools, a pattern which has also remained consistent.

Principals who reported difficulty in getting help from parents were also more likely not to have satisfactory help from non-parents (55 percent, compared with 16 percent of those who sometimes had difficulty getting help from parents, and 8 percent of those who had no difficulty getting parent help). A similar pattern held with the level of community support for the school, with 46 percent of those who had difficulty getting parental help describing their level of community support as low, compared with 12 percent of those who sometimes had difficulty getting parent help, and 1 percent of those who had no problems getting parental help.

Community Consultation

Almost all boards consult their school communities (89 percent). The next table shows that the kinds of methods used by boards are likely to be paper-based, and have changed very little.

Table 37

Methods Used in Board Consultations with its School Community

Method	1993 (n=292) %	1996 (n=270) %	1999 (n=376) %
Newsletter	75	80	81
Parents generally invited to board meetings	65	51	60
Written questionnaire	51	47	51
Public meeting at school	54	45	49
Public meeting in community	14	7	10
Phone survey	14	11	7
Specific parents invited to join policy groups	-	7	7
Hui	3	5	4
Home/cottage meetings	4	2	2

School characteristics made no difference to the kinds of consultation used by boards, with the exceptions of community public meetings, which were less likely in city schools, and public meetings at the school, which were more likely at fully funded schools (60 percent compared with 46 percent of centrallyfunded schools). This may reflect the higher incidence of parents raising issues with fully funded boards. This may also explain the higher proportion of hui at fully funded schools.

Only 12 percent of trustees felt that at least three-quarters of the school's parents had taken part in their community consultation. This is much the same as in 1996, compared with 25 percent in 1993. Twenty-one percent of trustees did not know what proportion of their school's community had taken part in consultation with their board. Parent participation in the school's consultations was unrelated to the methods they used. The schools which were more likely to have three-quarters or more of the parent population taking part tended to be those with rolls of fewer than 35, rural, and low-Maori-enrolment schools.

Forty percent of trustees felt their board's methods of consultation were successful, and another 38 percent felt they had been for some issues—much the same as in previous years. There was no relation between the kinds of methods used, and views on the success of the consultation. Rural trustees and those in schools of rolls of fewer than 100 (who tended to have higher proportions of parents taking part) were more likely to think their methods of community consultation had been successful.

Boards are most likely to consult parents on policy development, charter changes, or strategic development (31 percent). Other topics are student discipline or funding (12 percent each), school grounds or maintenance (9 percent), extracurricular activities (8 percent), health and safety (7 percent), or changes to the school, such as enrolment schemes, Education Development Initiatives (EDIs), or amalgamation (5 percent).

Issues Parents Raise With Their School Boards

Fifty-eight percent of the trustees said parents had raised an issue with their board during 1999, much the same as in 1996, but less than the 72 percent in 1993. These issues vary widely. They also overlap some of the topics on which boards consult their communities. Discipline and health and safety are the main sorts of issues parents feel they can ask their board to take action on. They do not appear to hold their board responsible for resourcing, such as funding or class size.

Table 38

Issues Raised by Parents with Their School's Board of Trustees

Issue	1991 % (n=322)	1993 % (n=292)	1996 % (n=270)	1999 % (n=376)
Discipline (including uniform)	15	23	17	16
Health and safety	11	7	11	10
Extracurricular provision	9	9	5	8
Dissatisfaction with staff member	8	8	6	7
Funding (including fundraising/spending)	12	5	4	6
Grounds/maintenance	-	-	7	5
Curriculum	0	0	0	5
Future of school	8	5	4	2
Transport	6	6	7	0
Staffing/class size	4	6	2	0
Provision for Maori children	3	5	2	0
Homework	2	3	0	0

Trustees at fully funded schools were somewhat more likely to say that parents had raised issues with their board (67 percent compared with 55 percent of centrally funded schools).

Most of the boards represented by the trustees responding had discussed issues raised by parents (54 percent), with 26 percent noting that parents came to board meetings to present their case (slightly down from the 37 percent in 1993). Twelve percent of the trustees noted that their

boards had had special meetings in response to parent-raised issues, and 10 percent, public meetings.

The action taken was most likely to be discussions with parents, with the principal (37 percent), or with a board member (24 percent). Twenty percent sought external advice or assistance. Nineteen percent noted some change in their school policies as a result of parents raising issues with the board. Other actions included discussions with the Ministry of Education (7 percent), with other local schools (6 percent), taking the issue to a joint board/staff committee (5 percent), or the setting up a board/parent committee (3 percent). The school principal had taken disciplinary action in 6 percent of the schools represented by trustees.

Consultation with Maori

Consultation between schools and their Maori communities (however defined) was most frequent in 1990, when schools were developing their charters, and there was central emphasis on equity issues. Although there is a requirement in the National Administration Guidelines to consult with the school's Maori community, not many schools did. Most consultation between schools and Maori communities has taken place with high-Maori-enrolment schools. Even with these schools, it has dropped back considerably since 1990.

Table 39

Consultations with MaoriCommunity by Topic and Proportion of Maori Enrolment at the School

	Maori Enrolment							
	Very low %		Low %		Moderate %		High %	
Source (n = 181)	1990 (n = 164)	1999 (n = 132)	1990 (n = 37)	1999 (n = 56)	1990 (n = 56)	1999 (n = 75)	1990 (n = 53)	1999 (n = 104)
Maori education funding	15	0	31	5	37	1	38	16
Bilingual units	-	1	-	2	-	4	-	29
Maori children's achievement	-	1	-	9	-	13	-	34
Appointments	-	0	-	4	-	5	-	8
Curriculum	-	5	-	9	-	8	-	26
Maori education policy	18	5	47	14	50	4	47	25
Treaty of Waitangi	23	8	36	7	44	12	55	13
Discipline	0	0	3	0	2	7	17	22
Equal learning opportunity	-	2	-	2	-	1	-	7
ERO report	-	3	-	7	-	7	-	24
All issues	24	1	28	7	22	7	28	24
Staffing	-	0	-	5	-	5	-	14
Charter	-	6	-	13	-	12	-	17
Special needs funding	-	0	-	0	-	1	-	10
No consultation	-	29	-	30	-	27	-	12
No/few Maori students	-	36	-	30	-	9	-	1

Fifty percent of the trustees did not identify particular methods by which Maori were consulted. Overall patterns are consistent with previous years, with perhaps a slight trend downwards.

Table 40

Methods of Board Consultation with Its Maori Community

Methods	1993 (n=292) %	1996 (n=270) %	1999 (n=376) %
Board member responsible for Maori liaison	26	24	19
Ongoing discussions with local Maori community	27	23	19
Put on school event (e.g., children's concert)	21	18	17
Board members' individual discussions with individual Maori parents	20	17	14
School has whānau group	-	15	13
Close relations with local marae	15	13	12
Asked Maori parents as a group to develop policy	15	10	7
Asked individual Maori parents to develop policy	9	7	3
Sponsored a hui	4	1	2

High-Maori-enrolment schools, decile 1–2 schools, and those in provincial towns were more likely to consult Maori, and to use a wider range of methods than others.

Thirty-two percent of the trustees thought the methods used by their board to consult Maori were generally successful, and 16 percent, that they were successful in some areas. These views were unrelated to the methods used.

Support from the Community

Community support for their school was rated as high by 36 percent of the principals, sufficient for 35 percent, variable for 16 percent, and low by 13 percent. Again, this pattern has remained much the same since 1991. Principals at decile 1–4 schools were more likely to rate their community support as low (22 percent compared with 7 percent of decile 5–10 schools), as did principals of high-Maori-enrolment schools (23 percent).

Most schools continue to receive voluntary help from people who had no children attending the school; 26 percent did not. These figures are also consistent with previous NZCER survey findings. Fifty-nine percent of the principals were satisfied with the level of the help their school got from the wider community, 18 percent were not, and 17 percent were unsure. While decile 1–4 schools were just as likely to have voluntary help as other schools, the level of help was less satisfactory (32 percent finding it unsatisfactory compared with 9 percent of decile 5–10 schools). A similar pattern was evident for moderate and high-Maori-enrolment schools.

Summary

- It is disappointing to report that one of the key aims of the reforms, to bring parents into schools and increase parental involvement in education, seems even further away from realisation than it was before the reforms began. But factors external to schools appear to provide some explanation, particularly the growth in mothers' employment (linked to the increasing need many families find to have two incomes coming into the home). There has been no increase in the proportion of parents saying they are not involved in their child's school because they feel uncomfortable in it, have not been asked, or feel that they should leave the school to get on with the job.

  Those who do feel one of these barriers are more likely to be unemployed or receiving a state benefit, or be Maori.
- On the one hand, most trustees and principals say they are satisfied with the level of parent involvement in their school; on the other, trustees express the need for far more practical support, and teachers would welcome more parental support in their classrooms.
- Low-decile and high-Maori-enrolment schools remain the schools which receive less parent and community support than others.
- While community consultation takes place, it is mainly indirect, through paper-based forms. Most schools have not maintained the level of consultation with the school's Maori community that was required in developing school charters, even with high-Maori-enrolment schools.
- Parents raised fewer issues with their school boards than in 1993. Discipline and health and safety remain the main issues of parent concern.

10 SCHOOL ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS

"Partnership" has been one of the prevailing themes of the reforms: partnership between trustees and school professionals, between schools and parents, and between schools and government. Partnership can of course take many meanings, but usually refers to a sense of common purpose and shared endeavour[15] This may be easier to achieve at school level because trustees and professionals are brought together as members of the school board.

At the school level, good working partnerships between boards of trustees and staff are more the norm than the exception. Previous NZCER surveys showed a consistent level of reported problems in the relations between boards of trustees and school staff or principals of around 12 percent, at any one time. Comparison of the same schools over time showed that usually these problems did not keep occurring at the same school, and also that good relationships could become problematic. Thus while the relationship has the potential to become difficult in any school, only a minority of schools, and the people in them, are affected at any one time. However, when relationships turn sour, morale is affected (as we shall see in the next chapter), and confidence is lost in the board (as we shall see in this chapter). It is worth asking whether it is possible to reduce this proportion to, say, three or five percent. If so, then new solutions need to be found, or thought given to the training and support available to boards of trustees and school staff.

Informal support and advice to maintain healthy relationships at the school level is available to people in schools through the school advisory service, though this may not remain so if funding for this service is put into school operational grants on a per-teacher basis, and schools become direct purchasers of specified services, on a user-pays basis. Other sources are NZSTA (whose funding from the Ministry of Education remains intact), NZEI, and other principals and trustees.

Views of the Key Element in the School Trustee's Role

Government departments make much of two aspects of the role of boards which board members themselves do not: their legal accountability for the school's performance, and their status as employer of school staff (*see.* ERO annual reports, the recent introduction of principal performance appraisal and individual renewable contracts for principals). Trustees are somewhat more likely than principals to emphasise their representation of parents, and principals somewhat more likely to see trustees as partners with school staff. Trustees' views are much the same as in 1996. Principals, however, are now more likely to see the trustees' role in terms of providing direction for the school, and less as providing partnership with school staff, although the latter is still the most frequent view among principals.

---

15 "Partnership" is receiving renewed attention among people concerned with fragmentation and the loss of social capital, and seeking new forms of cross-sector dialogue and collaboration. "In a true partnership the 'partners' (which may include government, business and community agencies) do not simply cooperate on a project as separate entities. They come together to form a new type of organisation in which all members contribute and participate in identifying needs and developing solutions." (Robinson, 1999, p. 23).

Table 41

Principal and Trustee Perceptions of the Main Element in the Role of the School Trustee

	Principals		Trustees	
	1996	1999	1996	1999
Representing parents in school	24	30	34	41
Providing direction for school	18	31	40	37
Partnership with school staff	63	44	30	28
Employer of school staff	4	3	5	2

Views of this role were largely unaffected by school characteristics, though principals at state-integrated schools were marginally more likely to see that providing direction for the school was the key role for trustees (53 percent).

What Boards Spend Their Time On

Most boards do not spend most of their time on day-to-day school management; nor do they focus mainly on strategic management or policy. Most of their time goes on resources: financial management and property. It is one of the ironies of the reforms that these were also the main preoccupations of the school committees which preceded boards of trustees. If more funding and the responsibility for property is further shifted to schools, then these will continue to be the major preoccupations of boards, rather than, say, school development focused on learning and achievement.

Table 42

Trustees' Ranking of Time Spent on Major Board Activities by Their Board

	Most Time %			Second Most %			Third Most %		
Areas	1991 (n=322)	1996 (n=270)	1999 (n=376)	1991 (n=322)	1996 (n=270)	1999 (n=376)	1991 (n=322)	1996 (n=270)	1999 (n=376)
Property/maintenance	21	27	22	20	24	23	30	17	17
Financial management	34	24	25	31	25	30	19	20	19
Day-to-day management	28	21	22	15	11	9	16	11	10
Personnel/industrial	6	18	10	-	8	7	-	15	12
Strategic planning	-	11	13	-	10	11	-	8	12
Policy decisions	16	0	12	22	9	14	23	17	19
Curriculum	-	1	8	-	7	9	-	10	12

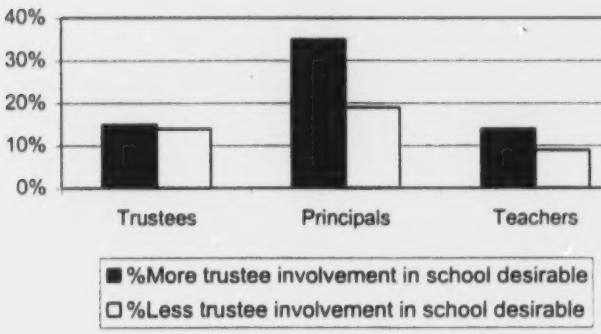
The main change since 1991 is an easing (already evident in the 1993 survey results) in the proportion of boards which found their time dominated by day-to-day management or financial management. These two aspects of board work were particularly demanding in the early days of the reforms, when schools were still setting up processes to enable them to deal with their new responsibilities. The increased number of boards which spent most of their time on policy work

may reflect outside pressures, such as decisions on whether to become fully funded, and the recent requirements to update charters, as much as internally generated issues.

Should Trustees Do More, Or Less?

As in 1996, principals were keenest to have more input from trustees. This was unrelated to their views of the key element in the role of school trustees. However, there was also an increase from 1996 in the proportion of principals who would like *less* involvement from their school's trustees.

Figure 12
Trustee Involvement in School



Trustees who were interested in having more involvement in their school mentioned a wide range of activities, including curriculum, classroom involvement, the day-to-day running of the school, and health and safety.

Principals would like practical help from trustees, particularly with property (11 percent), and to reduce the principal's workload (8 percent). Other aspects of school work mentioned were policy development, communication with parents, planning, finance, school self-review, and to show an interest in the curriculum.

Teachers who would like more trustee involvement in their school were keen to have trustees see what actually happens in their classrooms (7 percent). They also wanted them simply to have more contact with school staff, to actually do the work of the board, attend to property matters, or have contact with parents.

Trustees who would like less involvement in their school mentioned administration, property work, paperwork, fundraising, and meetings as areas they would like to have less work in.

Principals would like trustees to be less involved in day-to-day school matters, and school management (12 percent), and staffing matters (5 percent). The line between governance (the board role) and management (the principal role) is sometimes unclear: principals would like more practical help from trustees, but they also prefer to remain in charge.

Also mentioned were the curriculum, and special needs. Less involvement in school management was also the main theme for teachers who commented here, with some also mentioning that they would like less trustee involvement in teaching and staff appointments.

Principals of decile 1–2 schools were least likely to be interested in having less trustee involvement in their school (9 percent). Similarly, principals of moderate- or high-Maori-enrolment schools were less concerned to reduce trustee involvement (13 percent compared with 23 percent of very low- or low-Maori-enrolment schools).

Relationships Between School Boards and Principals

Around 12–15 percent of primary schools had some difficulties in the relation between principal and school board, taking the proportion of trustees and principals describing the relation between the principal and the school board as (only) satisfactory, or containing some problems. This proportion has remained reasonably consistent since 1990, with a slight shift toward describing the relationship as satisfactory rather than problematic. It would seem that at any one time we could expect difficulties in this relationship at around this level, in the present model of school self-management used in New Zealand, unless concerted effort were made to reduce the sources of tension between the two roles.

Table 43

Views of the Relationship Between Principals and Their School Boards

Quality	Trustees % (n = 270)	Principals % (n = 262)
Excellent/very good	69	67
Good	19	23
Satisfactory	5	5
Minor problems	4	3
Major problems	2	2

Major problems in the board's relationship with its principal were more likely to be reported by trustees in provincial cities and small towns (8 percent). State-integrated school trustees were more likely to describe the relationship as satisfactory at best, or with some problems (26 percent). Principals who were dissatisfied with their board's use of the supplementary grant were also more likely to find their relation with their board satisfactory at best (38 percent compared with 5 percent of those who were satisfied with their board's use of the supplementary grant).

School Boards and Staff

Only 2 percent of trustees have no direct contact with school staff. Quite a few trustees either help or work at the school, and they see staff socially or on working bees. They are less likely to work with them in joint groups on policy or strategic direction.

Table 44

Trustees' Contact with Their School's Teachers

Contact	% (n=376)
Social functions	66
Individual discussions out of school hours	66
Individual discussions in school hours	66*+
School working bees/fundraising events	57
Help at the school	38
Working groups to develop policy	28
Strategic planning sessions	24
Working groups to develop curriculum	12
Employed at the school	7

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous years;
"+" means an increase

Trustees in the smallest schools were least likely to help or work at the school (26 percent). Most trustees had at least three different kinds of contact with school staff (70 percent). Eighty-five percent of the trustees were satisfied with their level of contact with school staff, 10 percent were not, and 3 percent were unsure. City school trustees were less satisfied with their level of contact with school staff (74 percent).

Six percent of teachers felt they had no contact with the trustees on their school board, much as in previous years. The table below shows that the first year of the reforms saw the most contact between teachers and trustees. Since 1996 (and the fourth board elections in 1998, when many new trustees came on to boards), teachers' contact with trustees appears to have slipped further.

Table 45

Teachers' Contact with Their School's Trustees

Area	1989 % (n=414)	1993 % (n=334)	1996 % (n=361)	1999 % (n=396)
Talked at school functions	72	72	70	63
Met at staff/board socials	69	66	68	54
Informal contact in community	-	64	54	48
Teacher attended board meetings	-	40	43	30
Developed policy together	67	35	28	21
Trustees visited the classroom	28	10	10	9

City teachers generally had less contact with their school's board of trustees, and 10 percent had no contact at all, compared with 2 percent of rural teachers. Teachers at State-integrated schools were less likely to talk to their board of trustees at school functions (41 percent), as were those in moderate- or high-Maori-enrolment schools. These groups were more likely than others to feel

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

they did not know how their school board was doing. Teachers at decile 1–2 schools also were more likely to have no contact at all with their school's board (13 percent), and fewer of these teachers talked to their board at school functions (43 percent). Teachers at these schools would like their board to be more involved in the school (23 percent), and were most likely to describe their board as struggling (13 percent, compared with 3 percent of teachers at decile 9–10 schools).

Yet most teachers were satisfied with the contact they had with their school's board (81 percent, with 10 percent unsatisfied and 9 percent unsure). Among the least satisfied were those who had no contact at all with their board, 42 percent), teachers at high-Maori-enrolment schools (15 percent compared with 5 percent of other teachers), city school teachers (12 percent compared with 1 percent of rural teachers), and fully funded school teachers (12 percent compared with 6 percent of centrally funded school teachers).

Table 46

Views of the Relationship Between School Staff and Their School Board

Quality	Teachers % (n=396)	Principals % (n=262)	Trustees % (n=376)
Excellent/very good	41	47	66
Good	31	32	23
Satisfactory	16	14	5
Minor problems	6	6	3
Major problems	3	1	1

Rural teachers were less likely to describe the relation between school staff and the board of trustees as satisfactory (8 percent), but just as likely to note problems as teachers in schools in other locations.

Fourteen percent of the teachers responding represented their school's staff on the board. Most of the other teachers found their contact with their staff representative was sufficient (70 percent). Those who did not had only informal contact with their staff representative, without any reports after board meetings, or discussions on agenda items beforehand. These teachers were also more likely to describe the relationship between school staff and their board as satisfactory at best (53 percent). In many schools, there appears to be little formal consultation with school staff by teacher representatives, perhaps indicating that things were running smoothly and congenially in most school boards of trustees, or that schools do not allow or have time for formal consultation (see next chapter for a description of teachers' non-contact time).

Table 47

Teachers' Contact with Staff Representative on the Board of Trustees

Contact	1989 % (n=414)	1991 % (n=396)	1993 % (n=334)	1996 % (n=361)	1999 % (n=396)
Regular group report after board meetings	47	46	51	50	41
Nothing formal	33	29	25	56	35
Asked to provide information for board meetings[n]	–	–	–	25	26
Regular group discussion on agenda items before board meetings	25	21	21	16	12
Individual discussion on agenda items before board meetings	17	14	16	11	9

n = new question in 1996 survey

Relations Between Principals and School Staff

There appears to have been some improvement in the quality of relations between primary principals and their staff, with more teachers rating the relationships as excellent or very good than previously. However, principals continue to have a rosier view of these relations, as do many managers about their relations with staff, and the proportion of teachers noting problems in the relationship, while much lower than in 1993 (25 percent), remains much as it was in 1996.

Table 48

Views of the Relationship between Principal and School Staff

Quality	Principals % (n=262)	Teachers % (n=396)
Excellent/very good	67*+	52*+
Good	28	22
Satisfactory	2	8
Minor problems	1	9
Major problems	0	4

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Rural teachers were least likely to rate the relation between school staff and principal as satisfactory or problematic (13 percent compared with 23 percent of city teachers, 26 percent in small towns, and 32 percent in provincial cities). Teachers who described the principal's relation with the school staff as satisfactory or problematic were also likely to describe the board's relation with school staff the same way.

Teachers' Access to Information and Their Part in School Decision Making

Just over half the teachers thought their access to information on matters which affected their work was good (57 percent), and 33 percent described it as fair. Seven percent found it unreliable, and 1 percent said they did not get the information on time. This pattern has been consistent since 1990, and lower than the satisfaction levels in 1989, the first year of the reforms. Teachers in schools with rolls of 200 or more were less likely to find their access to information good (44 percent compared with 64 percent of those in smaller schools).

Most teachers also feel they are, if not part of their school's decision-making team, at least listened to by those who make decisions. There has been some slippage since 1996 in the proportion of those who feel they are part of the school's decision-making team. Assessment and budget allocation are two areas where more teachers feel their views are not sought.

Table 49

Teachers' Part in School Decision Making

Area (n = 396)	Part of Decision-making Team %	Listened to by Decision Makers %	Views Not Sought %	No Desire to be Consulted %
Discipline policy	49*-	41	12	1
Curriculum	53*-	31	7	0
Assessment policy	46*-	38	18*+	1
School organisation	42*-	44	17	1
Staff development	41*-	47	13	1
Budget allocation	39*-	36	25	3
Appraisal of staff performance policy	35	36	24	2
Special needs policy	34	41	19	2

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Senior teachers and those interested in taking a position of responsibility were more likely to feel they were missing out on information they needed for their work, or being left out of school decision making.

Seventeen percent of the teachers thought there were areas of the school in which they were excluded from decisions they should be involved in, with another 12 percent unsure. These areas covered the range in the table above, as well as strategic planning for the school, and allocation of students to classes. Teachers at fully funded schools were more likely to feel excluded from some school decisions (27 percent compared with 13 percent of centrally funded schools). Teachers who felt they did not get enough information on matters which affected their work were also more likely to feel they were excluded from the school's decision making.

Working Relations Between Trustees

Working relations on school boards of trustees were good or better in most schools. Trustees had a slightly more positive view of their quality than principals. Both of these patterns are consistent with previous NZCER surveys.

Table 50

Views of the Working Relations Between Trustees

Quality	Principals % (n=262)	Trustees % (n=376)
Excellent/very good	48	61
Good	32	27
Satisfactory	9	6
Minor problems	8	4
Major problems	3	1

Twenty-one percent of trustees in the smallest schools described the working relations between trustees on their board as satisfactory (at best) compared with 9 percent of others.

Board Responses to Conflict or Difficulty

Fifty-one percent of the trustees had had some conflict or difficulty to resolve, within their board, or between the board and the school staff. This is comparable to 1996, and slightly higher than in 1993 (44 percent). Most boards resolved any issues themselves (35 percent of those with issues), or sought advice from NZSTA (34 percent). They also sought advice from NZEI or the Ministry of Education, or used a mediator (11 percent each), got help from the Ministry of Education school support scheme (6 percent), or from other schools, or the Principals' Federation. Four boards dismissed staff. Use of NZSTA was much higher than it had been in 1996, when it was 12 percent.

Boards as Employers

As described at the start of this chapter, few trustees see that their responsibility as employer of school staff is the key element in their role as trustee. Most remain opposed to taking responsibility for negotiating employment contracts with teachers, although they have had to take a greater role in relation to principals' contracts and performance assessment.

National collective employment contracts are still in operation for primary schools, although the 1997–98 contract settlement saw the Ministry of Education prevail in putting all principals in schools with rolls over 300 on individual employment contracts, and offering schools with rolls below this a "supplementary grant" if their principal agreed to go on an individual employment contract. At this stage, most of the principals' individual employment contracts are based on the collective employment contract.

Principal Performance Appraisal

School boards of trustees became responsible for the annual appraisal of their principal's performance, against objectives which are agreed between the board and principal, and professional standards. It is now mandatory for each board of trustees to use professional standards in the assessment of the principal's performance.

There was some recognition by the Ministry of Education that this requirement to appraise a principal's work would need expertise which was not held in all boards of trustees. Schools were given a flat sum of $800, included in operational grants, to cover the new work of principal appraisal. Sixty-two percent of the principals thought this sum was enough to cover the cost of their appraisal, 17 percent had yet to embark on the appraisal process, and 16 percent did not think it covered the costs. Three percent of the principals had not been able to find a suitable person to help with their appraisal.

Twenty percent of the principals had brought in an outside expert to help them create a new system of teacher appraisal to fit the new interim professional standards. The smallest schools were most likely to bring in an outside expert, and least likely to have adapted an existing system.

Around a fifth of the trustees did not know whether their principal's performance assessment was used in relation to remuneration, professional development, or the use of the supplementary grant. These assessments were more likely to be used for professional development (55 percent) than remuneration (40 percent). They were less likely to be used for these purposes in rural schools, and the smallest schools. Most of the trustees whose school got a supplementary grant said the principal's performance appraisal was taken into account when looking at its use (70 percent).

Trustees were more unsure about whether the interim professional standards introduced in 1998 as part of the settlement of the collective employment contracts had yet had an impact in their school (47 percent). Sixteen percent thought they had not had an impact, 10 percent that they had, 15 percent that they had improved professional development, and 8 percent, that they had improved teaching.

Staff Appraisal

All the schools had a staff appraisal system, as required by the National Administration Guidelines (NAGs). The new interim performance standards brought an employment dimension into appraisal which had been used mainly for professional development, by linking progression through the salary scale dependent on a satisfactory assessment against these standards.

Seventy-three percent of the teachers said their staff appraisal process had been negotiated with staff, up from 57 percent in 1996. The same proportion were satisfied with the way their performance was appraised, 10 percent were unsure, and only 7 percent were not satisfied with their school's appraisal process. Teachers in schools where the performance appraisal system had not been negotiated with staff were less likely to be satisfied with the way they were appraised (46 percent).

All but a handful of schools used three sources to evaluate teachers' work: teachers' self-report, observations of teachers in the classroom, and an interview with the teacher. Twenty-eight

percent included parent feedback, and 25 percent, student feedback. Decile 9-10 schools were most likely to use student feedback (45 percent). State-integrated schools were less likely to use student or parent feedback.

The main use of performance appraisals was still for professional development, although they were also used for salary and, much more than in 1996, for reporting purposes.

Table 51

Use Made of Teacher Appraisals

(Teachers →) ↓Use	1996 (n=361) %	1999 (n=396) %
Identify staff development needs	61	80
Improve areas of performance	56	65
Support and encourage staff	55	65
Determine eligibility for pay increment	-	41*
Supply information to the school board	23	36
Supply information to ERO	16	30
Renew teacher practising certificates	-	23
Inform school development plan	20	17
Plan career	10	11
Not sure	14	9

* Many teachers are already at the top of their salary scale.

Principals also identified multiple uses for teacher appraisal. The main uses of the performance management appraisals carried out by principals were to identify staff development needs (96 percent), to support and encourage staff (87 percent), and to improve areas of performance (85 percent). They were also used to determine eligibility for pay increments (68 percent), to inform the school development plan (54 percent), and to supply information to the school board of trustees (53 percent).

Other uses were to renew teacher practising certificates (35 percent), to supply information to the Education Review Office when schools were reviewed (27 percent), or to help teachers plan their careers (26 percent).

Principals of rural schools were less likely to report the use of these appraisals to plan teaching careers (17 percent), or to determine eligibility for pay increments (56 percent), but more likely to report the use of them to provide information to ERO (33 percent compared with 19 percent in city schools). Principals of fully funded schools were less likely to use performance management appraisals to supply information to the school board, although teachers at these schools thought it was more likely that this was so (44 percent). Teachers at fully funded schools also reported more use of performance management appraisals to plan their careers (19 percent). This may reflect the younger age-profile of teachers in these schools, and the greater interest of younger teachers in moving to another school in the next five years.

Most teachers were happy with the way performance appraisals were used in their school, with 8 percent unhappy, and a further 17 percent unsure. Those who were not happy, were also less likely to be satisfied with the way they were appraised (17 percent). Much less use seemed to be

made of their appraisals, with the main uses related to reporting and decisions on eligibility for pay increments rather than for professional or school development. Thus performance appraisal systems which maintain the professional development aspect of teacher appraisal seem to be more satisfactory for teachers than those which focus solely on evaluation related to employment or accountability.

Most teachers also thought that their school's performance management system was helping to improve teaching and learning at their school: 48 percent thought it was of some use, and 28 percent thought it very helpful (up from 39 percent and 17 percent respectively in 1996). Eleven percent thought it would help improve teaching and learning at the school if more time was available, and 5 percent if resources were available. Only 7 percent did not think their school's system would help improve teaching and learning.

Most principals said that while the interim professional standards had made little difference to their school because the school had adapted its existing teacher appraisal system (69 percent), it had created additional work (58 percent). However, positive uses of the interim professional standards were identified: 40 percent of principals used it to identify areas needing further professional development, 34 percent to identify teachers' strengths, and 23 percent thought the use of the interim professional standards had been a positive experience for their staff. By contrast, 7 percent thought their use had lowered staff morale. Thirteen percent of the principals thought it was difficult to find observable performance indicators.

Board Responses to Industrial Relations Issues

There has been a gradual increase in the proportion of trustees reporting that their board had faced some employment or industrial relations issue over the past two years, from 44 percent in 1993, to 50 percent in 1996, and 57 percent in 1999. NZSTA has expressed concern that more school employees are employing lawyers, and taking boards of trustees to employment tribunals, rather than allowing any disputes to be resolved informally, often through the work of union staff (Increasing use of lawyers a worrying trend! *STANews*, September 1999, p. 5).

The main response of boards was to seek advice from NZSTA, 52 percent of those with an issue. Twenty-three percent each sought advice from the Ministry of Education or NZEI. Legal advice was sought by 16 percent, and 15 percent employed a consultant, up from 8 percent in 1996. Other sources of advice were the Principals' Federation, or another school (8 percent each). Fewer schools took out insurance (8 percent compared with 21 percent in 1993), and no school received an insurance payment. Eight percent of the trustees whose school had faced an industrial relations issue had received help from the Ministry of Education school support scheme.

How Boards Are Doing

Most boards of trustees are faced with some problem or issue that needs resolving, particularly in the financial area, and this year, in the policy area. Most trustees also feel they solve problems, more so in relation to people at the school and school policy than finance and property.

Table 52

Trustees' Views of Success of Their Board's Dealing with Problems/Issues

Area (n=270)	Solved %	Partially Solved %	Too Soon to tell/Not Sure %	Board Unable to Resolve/ Not Successful %	No Problem/ Issue %
Board or board/staff relations	21	8	6	2	49
Industrial relations	26	5	7	5	43
Major policy decisions	34	5	13	3	26*
Property maintenance	10	19	17	12	39*+
Financial management	25	17	20	4	26

*=statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous year; "+" means an increase; "–" means a decrease.

Over the last seven years, only 44 boards of trustees have had to be replaced by the Minister of Education by a single commissioner, as they can be if relationships at the school are completely disrupted, or not enough trustees can be found for the board. The use of commissioners has varied year to year.

The next table shows that most people in schools feel their board is doing all right, though a substantial minority of parents remain unclear about what their board is doing. Trustees tend to be slightly more positive than school staff. However, principals were more likely to judge their board as being on top of its task in 1999 than in 1996.

Table 53

Views of How Board Is Doing 1999

View	Parent % (n=897)	Trustee % (n=376)	Teacher % (n=361)	Principal % (n=262)
On top of task	14	36	29	23*
Making steady progress	13	57	38	55
Coping	7	8*	12*	13*
Struggling	2	2	6*+	9
Do not know	44	-	10	-

*=statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous year; "+" means an increase; "–" means a decrease.

Trustees' assessments of how their board was doing were related to their views of the relationships between board members, and between the board and school staff. Thirty-four percent of those who thought their board was coping or struggling, also noted that working relations between trustees were satisfactory or at best, compared with 2 percent of those who thought their board was on top of its task. Twenty-six percent of those who thought their board was coping or struggling noted that their board's relationship with the school staff was satisfactory at best

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

compared with 2 percent of those who thought their board was on top of its task. The latter also had better relations between board and principal: 4 percent noted it as satisfactory at best compared with 14 percent for trustees of other schools.

The lower a trustee's assessment of their own board's success, the more they were likely to think that they needed more expertise, for each of the categories asked about other than information technology. There was no relation between trustees' assessments of how their board was doing, and their judgment of the adequacy of the school's government funding or entitlement staffing, or the need for a free general-support service. However, the lower a trustee's assessment of their own board's success, the less satisfied they were with the Ministry of Education's present level of support and advice to schools (which is free), and with its involvement of the education sector in policy development.

Views of board success were unrelated to interest in clustering, amalgamating, or receiving capital expenditure money in operational grants.

Principal, teacher, and parent views of how the board was doing were also unrelated to school characteristics. Principals' and teachers' views were related to their view of relations between the board and school staff, and relations between the principal and school staff.

Issues Facing School Boards

Three main issues for boards are identified by all four groups involved in schools:[16]

- funding
- property
- rolls.

Rolls have become more important as an issue since 1996, and staffing, less so.

Trustees focus on provision and support for the school, with less attention to their own role, workload, or expertise than principals and teachers. Other issues mentioned by 2 or 3 percent were special needs provision, te reo Maori, health and safety, the role of the board, and staff appointments.

[16] The common question was: "What do you think are the three major issues confronting the Board now (if any)?".

Table 54

Trustees' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board

Issues	% (n=376)
Property	27
Funding	23
Roll	19
Planning	11
Information technology	9
Staffing	7
Parental/community support	7
Bulk/full funding	6
Future of the school	5
Curriculum/assessment	5
Board composition/structure/training	5
Relation with principal/role of principal	5
Performance management/performance standards	5
Relations with staff	4

As well as giving prominence to the board itself, principals also focused on the environment in which boards operate. Other issues mentioned by principals were full funding and special education.

Table 55

Principals' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board

Issues	% (n=262)
Board training/skill/knowledge levels expected	28
Funding	27
Board workload/time board members can give to their work	20
Planning/policy development	18
Property	17
Role of the board (including board trying to manage)	13
Responsibility they carry/expectations of boards by government agencies	12
Attracting/keeping good staff	6
Curriculum/assessment	6
ERO review	6
Not carrying their weight/leaving too much to principal	4
Relations/communication with school staff	4

Teachers' views fall between those of principals and trustees. Also mentioned by 2–3 percent each were student behaviour, staff performance, special needs, class size, ERO review, staff performance, curriculum, and a need for their board to have a better understanding of education.

Table 56

Teachers' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board

Issues	% (n=396)
Funding	26
Property/maintenance	23
Board structure/composition/training/coming to terms with their role	12
Planning/policy/charter	12
Roll/school size	10
Bulk funding	6
Staffing	6
Information technology/computers	5
Board workload/time to do their work	5
Staff appointments	4
Parental/community support	4
Future viability of school (including EDI, recapitations*, etc.)	4
Relations with staff	4

*=retention of forms 1 and 2.

Parents' views of the issues facing their board of trustees also focused mainly on resourcing and viability. They also mentioned two aspects mentioned by teachers, but not principals or trustees: student behaviour and discipline (which continues to head the issues they raise with boards of trustees), and the quality of teaching.

Table 57

Parents' Views of Major Issues Facing the Board

Issues	% (n=897)
Funding (including school fees, fundraising)	24
Property (including vandalism)	11
Roll numbers	9
Planning/future of school (including recapitation, middle schools)	7
Staffing	4
Student behaviour/discipline	4
Quality of teaching	4
Bulk funding	4

Summary

- Most schools continued to maintain good relations between school staff, and within boards of trustees. If we want to reduce the present level of problems in relations from the 10-15 percent it has been throughout the decade, some new solutions, or better-resourced support and training may be needed.
- The role of trustees appears to encompass providing direction, and dealing with resourcing issues in concert with the principal, rather than with school staff.

- There appears to be a growing distance between school staff and boards of trustees in terms of joint work on policy and school direction, and an easing of the involvement of staff in school decision making. Together with the increase in principals seeing the provision of direction to the school as the key role of trustees, one can also discern a growing tendency for principals to act as school managers.
- Although boards of trustees do not see their role as employer as key to their work, they are increasingly having to deal with industrial relations issues, and have had no option but to take on more employer responsibilities through the government's mandatory introduction of performance appraisal, linked to salary.
- At this stage, boards of trustees do have latitude in deciding which criteria to use in evaluating their principal's performance. Professional development remains a prime use of performance appraisal in schools, but its use for purposes of remuneration and reporting has become more frequent. Performance appraisal which is not used for professional development is generally less satisfactory for teachers. Principals who did not agree with their board's allocation of the supplementary grant were more likely to find their relations with the board problematic.
- These relations are important. Relations between school principals and staff, and between principals and school staff and their board of trustees are linked to views of how their school board is doing in its work.
- Resourcing issues continue to dominate board work. If school staff seek more trustee involvement in their school, it is either or provide practical help, or to gain the kind of understanding of teaching and learning which aid decisions on resource allocation.
- Funding and property, rather than school development, have remained the key issues for people in schools throughout the reforms. Roll numbers have gradually become more important, probably reflecting the increasing dominance of per-student formulas, and the growing number of primary schools which find themselves competing with other schools for students.

11 WORKLOADS, MORALE, AND SATISFACTION

There can be little doubt that school self-management increases workloads for school staff. Previous NZCER surveys showed a rise in the workloads reported by principals and teachers. Most of the increase in principal workloads occurred just after schools took on additional responsibilities. Previous surveys also show a gradual increase in teacher workloads. Trustee workloads decreased slightly with time, with most trustees giving around half a day a week on average to their schools.

Job satisfaction for principals, teachers, and trustees continues to revolve around the focus of schools: working for and with children, and seeing progress for children and the school. The changes to that focus which accompany school self-management, administrative and reporting requirements, as well as the size of their workloads, remain major sources of dissatisfaction. In 1996, morale was mixed for both principals and teachers.

Principals' Workloads

The present survey shows that principals' workloads remain high. Their average 1999 reported workload was 59.5 hours a week. With much decentralisation in NZ made to the individual school level—including substantial accountability, reporting and employment responsibilities—it is now clear from principals' reports that the job cannot usually be done in under 50 hours a week. This is in stark contrast to the available information about workloads before the reforms, when only a few principals worked more than 50 hours a week (Wylie, 1997a).

Table 58

Principals' Average Work Hours per Week

Area	1989 % (n = 174)	1990 % (n = 207)	1993 % (n = 191)	1996 % (n = 181)	1999 % (n = 262)
41–50 hours	35	11	12	9	7
51–60 hours	39	34	46	50	52
61–70 hours	14	42	36	36	36
71 hours or more	4	10	7	6	6

Teaching principals reported an average work week of 60:9 hours, slightly more than the 59.3 hours for non-teaching principals. Livingstone (1999, p. 30) also reports an average working week of 61 hours for teaching principals, using both estimates (as here), and work logs kept by principals for a week.

Partly reflecting their over-representation amongst teaching principals, women worked slightly longer hours than men (61.5 hours on average compared with 59.4 hours for men). There were no other differences related to personal characteristics such as age, length of experience as a principal, or ethnicity.

What do principals do in this time? Classroom teaching and administration remain dominant. Personnel management and educational leadership are also notable. Principals were spending, on average, as much time on school promotion as on the pastoral duties indicated by dealings with health and social service agencies. The management of special needs funding, which the SE 2000 policy included in school operational grants on a per-student basis, and which require application for individual children with ongoing special needs, also takes time.

Table 59

Allocation of Principals' Time

Proportion of time → ↓ Area (n=262)	Average Time %	9% or Less %	10–19 %	20–29 %	30–49 %	50–69 %	Over 70 %
Classroom teaching	30	25	10*-	7	20	25*-	8
Administration	25	5	15	32	29	9*-	0
Educational leadership	15	36*+	30	10*-	11	3	0
Board of trustees work	7	61*-	36	3*-	0	0	0
Own development	5	86*+	14*-	0	0	0	0
Property	7	63*+	31*-	5*-	1	0	0
Staffing/personnel/performance management[n]	10	46	41	9	3	0	0
School promotion/marketing[n]	5	80	10	3	0	0	0
Special needs funding/ management[n]	5	83	14	0	0	0	0
Dealing with health and social service agencies[n]	4	82	14	0	0	0	0

n = new question in 1996 survey.

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous year; "+" means an increase; "–" means a decrease.

Compared with previous NZCER surveys, principals appeared to be spending slightly less time on classroom teaching and board of trustees work. The area which shows the most change over time is in their own development. In 1993, only 34 percent of principals spent less than 10 percent of their time on professional development. By 1996, this had reached 77 percent, and in 1999, 96 percent of principals spent less than 10 percent of their time on professional development. It is somewhat disturbing to find a steady erosion of the proportion of time that principals spent on their own professional development.

Sources of Principals' Job Satisfaction

Teaching and working with students remains the most satisfying part of principals' work (44 percent identifying this in response to an open-ended question). Educational leadership, including working with staff and on school development, was mentioned by 35 percent, with a further 14 percent mentioning the related area of having well-motivated and positive teachers. Also

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

mentioned were working with the school's board of trustees or parents (9 percent), or having a well-regarded school (5 percent). These sources of satisfaction are consistent with the 1996 results.

However, principals in the 1999 survey were more than twice as likely to mention student progress and achievements than previously (29 percent compared with 12 percent in 1996). They were less likely now to mention getting effective systems in place for the school's management (5 percent compared with 12 percent in 1996).

Rural principals, who are mostly teaching principals, were more likely to mention teaching or working with students, and less likely to mention educational leadership. Principals of decile 9–10 schools were less likely to mention educational leadership (21 percent). Principals at fully funded schools were more likely to mention educational leadership as a source of satisfaction than their colleagues at centrally funded schools (46 percent compared with 31 percent).

Sources of Principals' Job Dissatisfaction

Not surprisingly, the paperwork of administration continues to head the list of principals' sources of dissatisfaction with their role. This source of dissatisfaction was given by 47 percent of principals, up from 34 percent in 1996, but lower than the 63 percent in 1990, the first year of decentralisation.

Although principals are more confident about administration, including financial management, they do not enjoy this part of their role—an essential part of school self-management. Livingstone (1999, p. 64) also found that the amount and nature of paperwork headed the list of factors which teaching principals found most stressful. The other two major factors which caused teaching principals stress were their number of hours teaching or at work, and ERO accountability reviews.

Workload issues, including the intensity of work, continuing deadlines, and interruptions, were the least satisfying part of their job for 17 percent of principals in this survey, as in 1996. Dealing with the government education agencies (Ministry of Education, ERO) is a major source of dissatisfaction for 16 percent, as in earlier years. There has been a slight increase since the early years of decentralisation in the proportion who give dealing with parents or their school's board of trustees as their main source of dissatisfaction (15 percent now, compared with 9 percent in 1990). Also mentioned were students' behavioural problems (6 percent), financial management (4 percent), and property management (4 percent). Financial management is less a source of dissatisfaction now than in the earlier years of the reforms.

It is hardly surprising then that principals also identified administration and workload as the main changes they would like to make to their work, as they did in the 1996 NZCER survey.[17]

[17] In response to an open-ended question.

Table 60

Three Things Principals Would Change About Their Work

Change	(n = 262) %
Reduce administration/paperwork	34
Reduce workload	22
More release time/become non-teaching principal	16
More support staff	13
Reduce ERO/Ministry of Education demands/expectations	12
More time to reflect/read/be innovative	10
More time to mentor staff	9
More contact with other schools	8
Time for a balanced life	8

Livingstone (1999, p. 73) also found that the greatest changes sought by teaching principals were to reduce their workload, have more release time, or be able to carry out the principals' role without also having to teach. The other main changes teaching principals wanted to make their job more worthwhile were to reduce paperwork and record-keeping, and improve resources, including professional and parent support.

Other changes principals in this survey mentioned would improve their work included decreasing class sizes, getting more resourcing to support children with learning difficulties, improving parental support for their children, and improving the quality of the school's accommodation.

Achievements

When principals identified their main achievements of the last two years, in an open-ended question, their main focus was on leadership, support, and material improvements to the school.

Since 1996 there has been an increase in the proportion of principals mentioning material improvements to the school's buildings and grounds, and some increase in those mentioning innovative programmes, improved resources, and progress on student assessment, although the numbers for these are not substantial.

Table 61

Principals' Main Achievements 1997–1999

Achievement	(n=262) %
Providing good leadership	38
Improvements to buildings/grounds	26+
Staff quality/professional development	23+
Positive/improved learning environment	23
Progress in implementing curriculum	20
Community/parents/board more involved in school	19
Performance management in place	18
Good school reputation	13
Roll growth	9
Improvements in student achievement	8
Innovative programme	8+
Good IT	8+
Improved resources	8+
Improved student assessment	7+
Meeting needs of particular group of students	5+

"+" = increase since 1996.

School characteristics were unrelated to the kinds of achievements that principals mentioned.

Fifty-eight percent of the principals also had hopes and plans they had not been able to realise over the past two years, much the same as in 1996. Among these were to achieve more stability in their roll (particularly for principals who described their school as having competitive relations with other local schools) (18 percent), improve property or extend accommodation (9 percent), improve the school's information technology (8 percent), or streamline systems or policies (8 percent).

Other areas where principals had not been able to make the changes they would like included improving provision for a particular group of students, such as Maori, Pacific Island, children with English as a second language; providing resources for curriculum; improving assessment; providing more individual support for some children; having more time to provide leadership, or to be creative in their thinking; slow the pace of curriculum change; and get more support for children's learning from some of their parents.

As in 1996, the main obstacles to their making further improvements in their schools were lack of time (40 percent), and money (28 percent). Lack of principal and staff time can also be seen as a lack of money, or government funding, which may be an indication that present staffing formulas are not sufficient to cover the work which people in schools see as needing to be done to keep improving their school. In this respect, it is interesting to note that principals at the smallest schools, which were better resourced, were less likely to give lack of money as a reason why they could not take desired action (22 percent).

Principals who mentioned money as their major obstacle were more likely to want to improve the school property or expand it, or to improve their information technology.

Nine percent of the principals identified lack of school board commitment as an obstacle. Only 3 percent identified lack of staff commitment, and 8 percent, government regulations.

Principals' Morale

In 1996, around half the principals described their morale as good or high. Despite continuing high workloads and concerns about the adequacy of their government resourcing, morale was much higher in 1999, with 72 percent describing it as good (50 percent), or high (22 percent). Nineteen percent of the principals responding felt their morale was not bad, 6 percent found it low, and 2 percent, very low.

Differences in principal morale levels were related to:

- being a teaching principal. Teaching principals' morale was lower than non-teaching principals'. Thirty-four percent described their morale as less than good, compared with 16 percent of their non-teaching colleagues.
- working longer hours. Those whose morale was low or very low also worked longer hours on average, with 60 percent putting in 61 hours or more on an average week, compared with 40 percent of those whose morale was not bad or better.
- thoughts of changing career. Morale was lowest among those who thought they would change careers over the next five years, with 46 percent describing it as less than good.
- principals' overall view of how their school board was doing. Sixty-three percent of the principals with low or very low morale described their board as coping or struggling, compared with 34 percent of those whose morale was not bad, 19 percent of those whose morale was good, and only 9 percent of those whose morale was high.
- principals' relations with their school board. Those who described their morale level as high were more likely to describe as excellent or very good their relations with the board, the board's relations with staff, and the principal's relations with staff and parents (percentage figures were between 75–85 percent for this group, compared with 40–65 percent for others). Fifty-three percent of the principals whose morale was low or very low also had relationships with their board that were at best satisfactory, compared with none of the principals whose morale was high, 7 percent of those whose morale was good, and 12 percent of those whose morale was not bad.
- principals' assessments of the working relations between their board's trustees. The proportion of principals whose assessment that these relations were at best satisfactory rose from 12 percent of those whose morale was high, 16 percent of those whose morale was good, and 28 percent of those whose morale was not bad, to 53 percent of those whose morale was low or very low.
- principals' assessment of the board's relation with school staff. Only 9 percent of principals whose morale was high described this relationship as less than good, rising to 53 percent of those whose morale was low or very low.
- having goals which principals had not been able to achieve. Thirty-one percent of those with such goals described their morale as not bad, low or very low, compared with 16 percent of those who had been able to achieve what they hoped.

- declining school rolls. Twenty percent of principals of these schools described their morale as low or very low compared with 5 percent of others.
- gender. Morale amongst male principals was somewhat lower than for female principals, with more choosing the category "not bad" (25 percent compared with 11 percent), although there were no gender differences among those whose morale was low or very low. There were no clear reasons why this difference existed, given that gender made no difference to perceptions of relations at the school, how boards were doing, and that length of time as a principal (with men having longer experience) made no difference to morale levels.

There were no apparent links between principals' morale levels and the characteristics of their school. Nor were principals' age, or length of experience associated with differences in workload, morale, or relations at the school.

Teachers' Workloads

In 1989, 67 percent of teachers reported working up to 15 hours a week on average over and above the 32.5 hours of the normal class week. In 1999, only 28 percent of teachers could manage their workload by working only up to 15 hours extra. While teachers' average work week rose gradually between 1990 and 1996, it has jumped noticeably between 1996 and 1999.

Table 62

Teachers' Hours On Work Outside Class Hours

Hours	1989 % (n=414)	1993 % (n=336)	1996 % (n=361)	1999 % (n=396)
1-6	9	8	8	6
7-10	28	16	13	11
11-15	30	24	24	16
16-20	19	26	31	32
21-25	10	16	16	18
More than 25	3	8	8	16

Estimates of teachers' average work weeks based on these figures give a rise from 45.8 hours in 1989, to 48.3 in 1996, and 50.1 hours in 1999. Excluding part-time teachers, the average is 51.5 hours a week. [18]

Senior teachers (in positions of responsibility or receiving management units) were twice as likely as others to be working an extra 21-25 hours a week.

[18] Interestingly, the average work week in 1997 of primary teachers in England, which underwent a similar decentralisation of responsibility to schools, was 50.3 hours a week. In the UK, the rate of increase in teachers' working hours between 1990 to 1999 was "generally more than 25 percent higher than the average professional" (Bunting 1999, p. 24).

Though teachers report that they have cut back on meetings and contact with parents in their work outside the normal class week, they are spending more time on preparation for classroom work and marking, assessment, and report writing than in 1996.

Table 63

Average Hours per Week of Teachers' Outside-class Time Given to Key Teaching and Administrative Tasks

Hours → / Task (n=396) ↓	Up to 2 %	2–5 %	6–10 %	11–15 %	16+ %
Preparation for classroom work	10	26	35	17*+	8*+
Marking, assessment, and report writing	22	40	23	7*+	3
School meetings and contact with parents	63*+	22	3	1	0
Training/staff development/receiving advice	46	19	4*+	1	1
School administration	50	27	4	0	0
Policy/curriculum	53	19	2	0	1

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous survey results; "+" means an increase.

Only 7 percent of teachers described their workload as fine; a third found their workload bearable; but 41 percent found it excessive. This is much the same as in 1996.

Workload hours and views of it were unrelated to length of teaching service, the type of school where the teacher served (other than those in schools with rolls under 35 being least likely to find it excessive (13 percent)), or personal characteristics such as age, gender, or ethnicity, and whether teachers had support staff or parental help in their classroom.

Forty-eight percent of those who described their workload as excessive were working at least 53 hours a week on average, compared with 26 percent of those who found their workload bearable, and 7 percent who described it as fine.

Teachers' Morale

Teachers' morale is generally lower than principals'. Just over half the teachers described their morale overall as high (11 percent), or good (41 percent). Twenty-nine percent described their morale as not bad, 11 percent as low, and 2 percent as very low. Harker, Gibbs, Ryan, Weir, and Adams (1998) in their study of teachers found that 31 percent of primary teachers were dissatisfied with teaching.

Morale was unrelated to school characteristics (other than those in the smallest schools showing higher morale) or personal characteristics, class size, length of teaching experience over all, or workload, but was related to:

- lower level of confidence in covering the curriculum (all seven areas asked about)
- lower ratings of the quality and adequacy of their teaching and assessment resources, for all seven areas asked about
- having less time because of increased assessment to cover the curriculum, plan and prepare lessons, give attention to individual children

- not getting a better picture of individual children's learning needs, though doing more assessment
- finding the classroom space inadequate, and too small
- finding the classroom furniture inadequate
- not having enough library staff time available for their students
- experiencing little co-operation with other local schools, and more competition with them
- experiencing less collegiality between fellow teachers at the same school
- dissatisfaction with their school's performance management appraisal system and the uses made of it
- dissatisfaction with the information available to them on matters that affected their work
- a desire to be more involved in the school's decision making
- finding the relation with the school principal to be satisfactory only, or problematic
- views that the school board was coping or struggling
- longer-than-average service at the current school
- thinking of changing careers within the next five years.

Teachers' Job Satisfaction

Children's progress and working with children are teachers' two main sources of satisfaction with their work (42 percent each). Teaching and meeting children's learning needs were mentioned by 21 percent. Other sources of satisfaction were working with colleagues, as part of a team (8 percent), and working with parents to increase children's learning (4 percent).

Sources of dissatisfaction are headed by paperwork and administration (35 percent), workload and stress (20 percent), assessment (15 percent), and children's behaviour or lack of discipline (13 percent). Lack of parental or community support were mentioned by 8 percent, and lack of money or resources by 5 percent.

Two new sources of dissatisfaction were aired: lack of support from the principal or other school staff (7 percent), and playground duty (5 percent).

What are the main themes in teachers' suggestions for what they would change about their work if they could? The next table shows ideas which focus on reducing workloads and providing teachers with more support in their work. There is less interest than in 1996 in increasing pay: an apparent reflection of the success of the pay parity campaign and the increase in teachers' pay as a result of the 1997–98 contract negotiations.

Table 64

Teachers' Desired Changes in Their Work

Change	% (n = 396)
Reduce administration/paperwork	29
Reduce class sizes	24
Change/reduce assessment requirements	17
Reduce the workload	16
More non-contact time for preparation, etc.	15
More support staff	13
More funding/resources for classroom work	12
Reduce curriculum coverage/size	11
Time to reflect/plan/share ideas	10
More time working with children	8
Fewer non-teaching duties	8
Better provision for special needs	7
More positive appreciation of teachers	6
More professional development	5
Fewer discipline/behaviour problems	5
Better pay	4* -

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous years; "–" means a decrease.

Other suggestions from teachers to improve their work were to slow the pace of change, to provide better IT resources, and to focus more on the basics.

Non-contact Time

A study of self-managing schools in the United States showed that to make real differences to teaching and learning, it was important to make time for collegial activity to sustain innovations. "For the most successful sites, the amount of time was equal to approximately 1/10 of the work week and occurred on a weekly schedule" (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998, p. 1294). In the third international mathematics and science study (TIMMS), countries which gave teachers time to work together as part of the regular school day had higher scores on average (Budge, 1997).

One of the aims of the reforms was to make schools more innovative, and responsive to students' learning needs. Has decentralisation made it easier for teachers to have time out of the classroom for the school and programme development which should be one of the key aspects of school-site management?

Only 30 percent of teachers in 1999 had any non-contact time during the class day: down from 37 percent in 1996, and 35 percent in 1989. Perhaps the emphasis on class size, which is important to parents as well as teachers, has made people in schools cautious about regrouping of children which would increase class sizes, albeit for some periods of the day only. However, there has also been little substantive increase in the amount of teacher-aide help available to classroom teachers in this period, reflecting pressures on school budgets.

Most of the teachers who had some non-contact time had less than two hours a week on average (72 percent). Sixteen percent had more than four hours, and 9 percent, three to four hours. Deputy principals and assistant principals were most likely to have more than four hours non-teaching time a week. Teachers in fully funded schools were more likely to have some regular non-teaching time (50 percent), with most having less than two hours a week.

Planning or development is only one of the many uses to which teachers put their limited non-contact time.

Table 65

Teachers' Use of Non-teaching Time

Use of Time	Senior Teachers % (n = 124)	Teachers % (n = 272)
Plan lessons	21	25
Update pupil records	23	25
Test children	29	18
Mark work	18	23
Observe other staff	35	7
Administration	37	18
Update teaching skills and knowledge	15	12
Talk to parents	23	14
Discuss work with other staff	27	14
Develop/revise school policies	24	9
Prepare/manage teaching resources	38	23
Maintain/develop library	11	3
Attend management meetings	25	6
Appraise staff	33	4
Relieve other teachers/cover other classes	23	6
Tutor teacher	19	3
Associate teacher	25	6
Maintain computers	10	3
Own professional development	18	13
Deal with professional standards	13	1
Train others	21	3
Have professional discussion with teacher, etc.	8	3

Senior teachers were more engaged in school management, both administration, and managing other teachers, e.g., through performance appraisal. They also dealt with resources, and provided relief for other teachers.

Responsibilities Outside the Classroom

Every teacher has responsibilities for aspects of school life beyond their own classroom. Senior teachers have more than others.

Table 66

Teachers' School Responsibilities

Responsibility	Senior Teachers % (n=124)	Teachers % (n=272)
Responsibility for a specific curriculum area	86	77
Sports supervision/training	38	32
Cultural club	15	9
School choir/orchestra	12	7
School play/display day	13	14
School newsletter	11	3
Library	25	18
Liaison with group of parents/board	32	14
NZEI representative	7	13
Development/revision of school policy	40	20
Health	21	15
Fundraising	34	18
School patrols	25	21
Computers	24	15
Staff appraisal	50	13
Student counselling	13	5
Special needs students	27	15
Staff representative on board	23	15
Staff supervision	27	7
Responsibility for budget area	74	43
Syndicate/team leadership	61	9
Tutor teacher	23	6
Associate teacher	57	31
Staff professional development	52	17
Playground duty	84	84

However, a number of responsibilities appear to have been shared more widely at the start of the reforms than ten years later. Perhaps this reflects the introduction of job descriptions and, more recently, performance appraisal. Fewer teachers are now responsible for development of school policy, sports supervision or training, liaison with a group of parents, the school play or display day, cultural clubs, student counselling, or serving as NZEI representative.

Table 67

Teachers' Non-classroom Responsibilities

Responsibility	1989 % (n=414)	1993 % (n=336)	1996 % (n=361)	1999 % (n=396)
Responsibility for a specific curriculum area	87	83	83	78
Playground duty	–	–	81	83
Responsibility for a budget area	–	56	61	47
Development/revision of school policy	–	46	44	23
Sports supervision/training	44	35	37	33
Associate teacher[n]	–	–	–	35
Staff professional development[n]	–	–	–	23
Syndicate/team leadership[n]	–	–	31	19
Fundraising	–	27	25	21
Liaison with group of parents/board	37	25	25	20
Staff appraisal	–	23	24	19
Library	27	24	23	19
Staff representative on board of trustees	–	21	22	17
Special needs students	–	–	22	18
School play/display day	31	23	21	14
Tutor teacher	–	–	19	9
Health	24	21	17	16
School patrols	–	–	17	20
Computers	–	19	16	18
NZEI representative	–	20	15	11
School choir/orchestra	6	14	14	8
Staff supervision	–	23	13	8
Student counselling	–	15	12	8
Cultural club	17	10	9	10
School newsletter	11	9	6	5

n=new question in 1999 survey.

Trustees' Workloads

Trustee workloads were highest in 1989, the first year of boards' existence, when the average trustee reported that they gave 4.2 hours a week to their role. Reported hours then eased to an average 3.6 hours a week in 1990, and since 1991 have been consistently a little below that. In 1999, trustees gave on average 3.4 hours a week to their work for schools. Fifteen percent of trustees worked for six hours or more.

Chairpersons, and trustees responsible for special needs, industrial relations and legal matters, and representing the board at NZSTA meetings were more likely than others to give six hours or more to their trustee work on an average week.

Trustees' Satisfactions and Dissatisfactions With Their Role

Three main sources of satisfaction for trustees throughout the reforms have been seeing some positive change, doing things for children, and working as part of a team. Decision making itself was at first the dominant source of satisfaction, but that has declined in importance as trustee involvement in school decisionmaking at the board level has become the norm.

Table 68

Sources of Trustees' Satisfaction With Their Work

Source	1990 % (n=257)	1993 % (n=254)	1996 % (n=251)	1999 % (n=340)
Seeing progress/ improvements	19	22	17	21
Doing things for children	19	20	13	18
Positive relationships at school	0	5	11	18
Working as part of a team	12	17	11	12
Making decisions about the school	43	32	24	11
Having school running well	0	11	23	9
Having a say in my child's education	-	-	-	7
Good quality of education at school	0	10	10	5

Paperwork has been among the main sources of dissatisfaction reported by trustees. By 1999, it had become the dominant source (19 percent). Dissatisfaction with the workload (9 percent), and meetings (7 percent) were also sources mentioned in previous NZCER surveys. But funding or fundraising had declined as a source of dissatisfaction to a level comparable with the early days of decentralisation (7 percent compared with 20 percent in 1996), and dealing with government agencies was also lower (6 percent compared with 12 percent in 1996). Lack of support from parents was a new source of dissatisfaction (9 percent). Three percent mentioned lack of recognition or low pay, and two percent, their legal responsibilities. Twenty-five percent of trustees did not comment here, and most trustees gave one source of dissatisfaction only.

The main things that trustees would change about their role would be to reduce their workload (13 percent), improve their training or knowledge (10 percent), get more support from the Ministry of Education (8 percent), and increase their payments (7 percent). Other suggestions were to increase school funding, have a clearer distinction between governance and management, have better communication between board members, more support from parents and the community, and more inclusion of Maori.

Summary

- Workload and paperwork associated with the administrative and reporting work that accompanied decentralisation are the main sources of dissatisfaction for people in schools. It appears that New Zealand primary schools cannot be run without principals working an average of 60 hours a week, no matter what the size of the school.
- Teaching workloads have jumped markedly between 1996 and 1999, with more time needed for assessment and reporting, and planning classroom work (with assessment taking more classroom time than previously, as we shall see in the next chapter). Forty-one percent of teachers describe their workload as excessive.
- Trustees can also expect to give a half a day a week to their school, on average, again no matter what size the school, or the characteristics of its community.
- Yet principal morale is higher now than three years ago, and teachers' morale is also somewhat higher, though still lower than principals.
- Principals and teachers whose morale was lower than others did not share personal or school characteristics. It was what was happening at their own school which mattered, or, for teachers, their own confidence that they could cover the curriculum, and had the resources and support to do so.

  Principals' morale was affected by the quality of relations at the school, particularly between the staff and board, and within the board itself. They were also affected by high workloads, unstable rolls, and having ideas for change that they could not bring about (usually due to lack of money or time).

  Teachers' morale was affected by feeling unsupported in the school, not being involved in decision making or getting sufficient information, relations between staff and principal, and staff and board, and also by the feeling that increased assessment was reducing the quality of their teaching.
- Fewer teachers had some non-contact time than in 1989, and not much of this appeared to be spent on the shared planning and development that characterises innovative schools.
- All teachers have some school responsibilities beyond their classroom. Sharing of those responsibilities is less than at the start of the reforms, probably because of the introduction of individual job descriptions and performance appraisal based on job descriptions.
- Changes that people in schools would make to improve their workloads were to reduce paperwork and administration. Teachers would also reduce assessment and class size, improve their support, and have more non-teaching time. Many teaching principals would like to become non-teaching principals, or at least reduce the time they spent in the classroom. While teaching and working with children remains a prime source of satisfaction, trying to carry out the two roles in one job has proven very difficult.

12 CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT

Decentralisation of administration and responsibility to school level raises some interesting questions about the respective roles of centre and school when it comes to curriculum. Before 1989, national curricula for individual subjects did exist, developed over time, through substantial professional development that allowed considerable trialling in schools and spreading of what might now be called "best practice". This process of development meant that there was a great deal of commonality in approaches to the curriculum. Yet schools also had considerable latitude in what they taught, how they taught and when they taught it: something which comes as a surprise to those who read accounts of the reforms which paint a picture of a "centralised" education system as if this was a rigid or top-down system in every aspect.

One of the intentions of decentralisation was to encourage schools to become more responsive to local needs and to become more innovative. Yet teachers in the NZCER surveys reported little change in their curriculum until 1993, when the National Curriculum Framework (1993) laid the ground for redevelopment of curriculum, and substantial money was provided for (often short-term) professional development contracts to allow rapid introduction of the new curriculum statements. Central impetus was critical to change in self-managing schools.

1994 saw the first new national curriculum statement, for mathematics. A national curriculum statement for science followed in 1995, and English in 1996. Schools felt the pace of introduction was too swift, particularly as each curriculum statement also set out levels against which students should be assessed. Introduction of the four remaining curriculum areas was more gradual, with technology becoming mandatory in 1999, two years after the final curriculum statement was produced, social studies set to become mandatory in 2000, health and physical education in 2001, and the arts, still in draft form, in 2002.

Some of the aspects of the new national curriculum framework which differ from the old are:

- a much faster development and introduction of new curricula
- the weaving of "essential skills" through each content area
- stronger links between curriculum and assessment, including a set number of learning levels.

Assessment tools have been developed in the wake of the curriculum developments, at the same time as ERO was criticising schools for not having sufficient evidence of children's learning progress. This resulted in a much increased assessment load for teachers, and duplication.

The Education Review Office has been a strong advocate for national assessment, arguing that without it, schools cannot be held accountable, and "New Zealand students, teachers, parents and taxpayers cannot be assured of the worth of the schooling provided overall or the outcomes of schooling for individual students." (ERO, 1999, p. 47).

Teachers' Reports of Curriculum Change

Curriculum changes have become part and parcel of teachers' work. As in previous years, only 4 percent of the teachers responding said that their curriculum had not changed at all, although in this survey the period asked about was three years rather than a single year. Although there has been a conscious slowing down of the introduction of new curricula since 1996, curriculum change may have intensified somewhat, with only 12 percent of teachers saying their curriculum had changed only a little, half the 24 percent who said this in 1996. Curriculum change was experienced by teachers at all levels.

The next table shows the reasons teachers gave for their curriculum change. These are much the same as in 1996. The impetus for curriculum changes reflects the centrality of national curriculum changes in teachers' work, and ERO's auditing of schools in terms of their providing the curriculum, as well as teachers' responses to particular children's needs. Note that parents are not a dominant source of change in teachers' practice, as they could be, presumably, if education fitted an (idealised) market model. As we shall see in chapter 14, while 28 percent of parents would like some change in their child's classroom programme, most of their desired changes are structural (e.g. reduction in class size, single level classes, more individual help for children). Some parents' interests in change also counter the desires of other parents, e.g. those who wish for a more academic focus, and those who wish to see more sports.

Table 69

Reasons for Curriculum Changes

Reason for Curriculum Change	% (n=396)
New curriculum statement	73
To meet children's needs	62
Curriculum/assessment contract	45
To develop my own skills	33
To satisfy ERO	33
To match level of learning	32
To match school charter objectives	25
I am now teaching a different age	20
To meet parent interest	15
I am now teaching at a different school	14

Small-town teachers were less likely than teachers in other locations to report making changes because of a new curriculum statement (56 percent), or a curriculum or assessment professional development contract (28 percent). New entrant and junior class teachers were more likely than to mention a curriculum or assessment contract than teachers of years 4 to 8 (60 percent compared with 41 percent).

The kinds of curriculum changes which teachers made over the last three years are largely in line with changes made since 1993, when the national curriculum framework was introduced.

Assessment changes have become more widespread over time. The next table shows a strong emphasis on information technology which reflects the 1999 introduction of the new technology curriculum statement. More teachers are also catering for children with English as a second language, particularly in city schools and fully funded schools, and by new entrant teachers. Those who had introduced a language other than English or Maori were all teaching in state schools, were most likely to be teaching years 7 and 8, and were more likely to be teachers in fully funded schools.

Table 70

Changes to Curriculum

Changes to Curriculum	1991 % (n=396)	1993 % (n=302)	1996 % (n=361)	1999 % (n=396)
More use of computers (1996)/information technology (1999)	39	56	56	78
More emphasis on assessment	-	51	63	74
Change to subject syllabus (1996)/curriculum statement (1999)	4	44	44	57
More emphasis on social skills	17	33	39	45
More integration of subjects	17	41	42	36
More emphasis on literacy[n]	–	–	–	33
More emphasis on basic skills	14	24	29	32
More Maori language	22	34	26	29
More emphasis on numeracy[n]	–	–	–	27
More teaching of English to children for whom English is a second Language[n]	–	–	14	21
More education outside the classroom	8	12	9	16
More religious/moral values education	4	3	6	9
Introduction of a language other than Maori or English	–	2	4	7
Less education outside the classroom[n]	–	–	–	4

n = new question in 1999 survey.

Teachers in moderate- or high-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to be putting more emphasis on literacy (41 percent compared with 25 percent of teachers in very low- or low-Maori-enrolment schools). Twenty-five percent of teachers in state-integrated schools were undertaking more religious/moral/values education, which may reflect the recent emphasis given to values education by the Catholic Education Office.

Those in schools with rolls under 35 were more likely to have cut down on their outdoor education (19 percent).

In terms of local initiatives, what difference do national curriculum statements make? The impact appears uneven, but indicates that the national curriculum is not a radical departure for many schools. Forty-seven percent of the teachers thought it had enhanced particular curriculum emphases or assessment practices that their school had developed. Thirty-four percent had had to change their practice.

In the main, changes were related to assessment and record-keeping, rather than curriculum coverage or pedagogy (teaching approaches). Of those who made changes, 45 percent reported adding new assessment or records, 27 percent adopted more specific learning outcomes, 23 percent

made changes to a particular curriculum area, such as mathematics, 12 percent increased their planning activity, 10 percent made more use of portfolios or self-assessment, and 8 percent made more use of information technology, or changed the way they reported progress to parents. Four percent noted more integration of subject areas.

Teachers' Confidence in Their Ability to Cover the Curriculum and Achievement Objectives

Few teachers are totally lacking in confidence that they can cover the curriculum. A substantial minority feel they cannot cover all areas equally well, particularly in technology, mandatory in 1999, and the forthcoming curricula. Teachers were most confident about the earliest of the new curriculum statements, mathematics.

Table 71

Teachers' Confidence in Their Ability To Cover the Curriculum

Curriculum Area	Confident	Not Confident in Some Areas	Not confident
English	55	38	2
Mathematics	68	23	2
Sciences	48	38	5
Technology	31	48	13
Social studies	54	35	4
Arts	34	46	11
Health and PE	40	46	6

Teachers were less confident that they had adequate resources to help them provide the full curriculum, particularly for technology.

Table 72

Teaching Resources—Adequacy

Curriculum Area	Have Sufficient	Not Sure in Some Areas	Insufficient
English	49	32	13
Mathematics	52	27	13
Science	32	45	12
Technology	19	51	21
Social Studies	38	42	12
Arts	34	40	15
Health and PE	41	42	8

Most teachers described the quality of their teaching resources for the new curricula as variable, although few thought they were poor throughout.

Table 73

Teaching Resources—Quality

Curriculum Area	Good	Varies	Poor quality
English	36	58	1
Mathematics	46	44	3
Science	28	55	5
Technology	18	65	6
Social studies	35	53	4
Arts	32	51	6
Health and PE	37	50	4

Teachers were slightly less confident about their ability to assess children against curriculum objectives than about their ability to cover the curriculum.

Table 74

Assessment

Curriculum Area	Confident	Not Confident in Some Areas	Not Confident
English	41	51	3
Mathematics	65	27	1
Science	35	50	5
Technology	27	50	15
Social studies	44	42	6
Arts	26	50	15
Health and PE	37	48	6

Teachers were also slightly less confident that their assessment resources related to the curriculum were adequate.

Table 75

Assessment Resources—Adequacy

Curriculum Area	Have Sufficient	Not Sure in Some Areas	Insufficient
English	37	48	10
Mathematics	50	34	8
Science	27	52	9
Technology	17	60	13
Social studies	29	54	9
Arts	20	55	14
Health and PE	32	49	9

Their views of the quality of their assessment resources were much the same as for the quality of their curriculum resources.

Table 76

Assessment Resources—Quality

Curriculum Area	Good	Varies	Poor Quality
English	30	61	3
Mathematics	41	48	3
Science	24	58	4
Technology	14	67	8
Social studies	27	59	4
Arts	20	58	10
Health and PE	31	54	5

Year 1–3 teachers were less confident about their ability to cover the mathematics curriculum and achievement objectives. Year 7–8 teachers rated the quality and adequacy of their teaching and assessment resources lower than teachers at lower year levels, and were less confident of their ability to cover the social studies curriculum. New teachers (with less than two years' experience) tended to be less confident than others that they had adequate resources to teach mathematics, more confident than others that they could cover the technology, social studies and art curricula, and assess children's performance in technology.

Teacher ratings of the quality and adequacy of their resources to cover the curriculum and achievement objectives tended to be highest for teachers in very low-Maori-enrolment schools, and falling as the proportion of Maori enrolment rose. A similar trend was evident in relation to school decile.

Teachers in small towns had less confidence in their ability to cover mathematics, and rated the quality of their teaching resources for mathematics and English less highly than others. Teachers in state-integrated schools also rated the quality of the teaching resources for mathematics and social studies lower than their colleagues in state schools.

Thirty-two percent of the teachers, an increase from the 21 percent in 1996, would like to introduce further changes to their curriculum, and another 20 percent were unsure. Most of the changes they would like to see centred around resources and assessment. Thirty percent of those interested in making changes would like better resources or guides for particular curriculum areas. Seventeen percent would like more specific achievement objectives. Twelve percent would like to have less assessment. In terms of curriculum itself, 17 percent would like to focus more on "the basics", 5 percent would like an update of particular curriculum areas, and 2 percent, more values education.

Sixty-two percent of the teachers thought that they faced barriers in making changes to the curriculum they taught. Again, resources feature strongly: 82 percent of those who reported that they faced some barrier mentioned lack of time, 52 percent lack of money, 47 percent lack of teaching resources, and 37 percent, lack of professional development. Commitment did not figure highly as an obstacle (12 percent mentioned lack of teaching staff commitment, 5 percent lack of

board of trustees commitment). Nor did the NAGs and NEGs (9 percent), or the national curriculum (6 percent).

Assessment

Ninety percent of the teachers who were teaching in 1996 said that the amount of assessment they did had increased over the previous three years. The benefits of increasing the amount of assessment were:

- a better picture of individual children's learning needs (68 percent)
- changed approach to student learning difficulties (28 percent).

The costs of increased assessment were:

- less time to cover the curriculum (51 percent)
- less time for attention to individual children during class (50 percent)
- less time to prepare/plan lesssons (48 percent).

Seventy-five percent of the teachers who responded did more assessment outside class hours, and 19 percent had made changes to their curriculum as a result of their increased assessment.

While ERO has expressed concern that teachers "lack nationally referenced tools for assessing the progress and achievement of their students and hence have no way of knowing if the school-based judgements they do make are comparable with those made by other teachers in the same school or teachers in schools nationally" (ERO, 1999, p. 47), most primary teachers were using some standardised assessments, which offer comparisons with national performance data.

However, although they were using criteria taken from curriculum level statements, they were still making little use of the new assessment tools which are linked to the curriculum, and provide national benchmarks: the assessment resource banks, and the national education monitoring project's (NEMP) tasks.

This may be because the development of the new curricula and new assessments to match those cannot take place simultaneously, or be made universally available. At the same time, ERO has been reviewing schools on the basis of their provision of a balanced curriculum, and asking for evidence of children's achievements. This poses real difficulties for schools and teachers, and has probably resulted in some over-gathering of assessment material, without time to stand back and use it in a new way.

Table 77

Teachers' Current Assessment Practices

	New Entrants % (n=65)	Years 1–3 % (n=135)	Years 4–6 % (n=120)	Years 7–8 % (n=52)
Standardised Tests and Tasks				
Running records	95	97	96	83
PAT tests	8	34	82	85
Burt tests	42	62	58	42
Assessment resource bank (ARB)[19]	2	0	2	0
School entry assessment (SEA)	69	36	17	6
National education monitoring project tests (NEMP)	2	4	9	12
6-year net	79	76	24	14
Spelling tests	51	72	88	79
Curriculum-referenced Assessment				
Curriculum checkpoints	59	57	48	40
Primary progress record	57	49	46	25
Essential skills observations	57	64	63	54
Criteria taken from curriculum level statements	75	79	68	67
Other Assessment				
Behavioural checklists	45	44	49	35
Work samples/portfolios	99	95	92	98
General ability/IQ tests	0	2	6	12
Behavioural observations	75	74	74	77
Self-assessment	74	82	85	87
School entry checks	74	39	18	12
Individual education plans	39	43	45	50
Profiles	57	70	69	65
Pre/post tests	52	69	85	77
Group assessment	39	36	53	56
Peer assessment	29	44	67	64
Other	9	7	2	10

There have been some changes in the popularity of assessments over the decade, some indicating a more conservative approach, but others not. Since 1989, spelling tests have more than doubled in use for new entrants (up from 14 percent), and years 1–3 (up from 33 percent). Other kinds of assessment which are now more frequent than previously are children's self-assessment (tripled in use by new entrant and year 1–3 teachers), and behavioural checklists (although new entrant and year 1–3 teachers make less use of behavioural observations). Curriculum checkpoints (such as those included with the Beginning School Mathematics resource) have declined in use. Use of the

[19] This low reported use of ARBs was somewhat surprising, given that 56 percent of contributing primary schools, 43 percent of full primary schools, and 83 percent of intermediates are registered users of the ARB web-site, and the increase in the number of times ARB pages are requested from the server. What it may indicate is that web-site access is still problematic for most teachers (*see also* Table 14, which indicates that few teachers are using the Internet as a major source of advice and information).

primary progress records, which were introduced in 1990, but which many schools had already been using of their own accord, having picked them up by taking part in their development, has almost halved across the board. Ironically in view of the government's recent insistence that parents are not getting sufficient information about their children's progress from teachers, these records provided comprehensive evidence about children's progress, and were designed to be passed on with the child so that future teachers were also informed.

Teachers in this study were making much use of their assessments, particularly to provide learning opportunities appropriate for individual students. This is contrary to the overall impression given by ERO (1999). Timperley, Robinson, and Bullard (1999) also found that teachers in Mangere-Otara were focusing on individual children in their assessment practices, but were not analysing the data in terms of their programme. Most teachers in this survey did say that they used assessment data for programme planning, at least in terms of curriculum coverage. There was a much lower use of assessment data to compare different groups of children, which suggests that there was little analytical use of assessment data to inform progamme development in the way recommended by Timperley et al.

Table 78

Teachers' Use of Assessment

Use of Assessment Data	% (n = 396)
Decide what individual children need to learn	92
Reporting to parents	90
Group children for teaching	88
Check/change children's grouping	84
Decide what the class as a whole needs to learn/for programme planning	77
Reports to school board	54
Reports to ERO	39
Compare this year with previous years	28
Regular review of every child's overall progress with a senior colleague	27
Regular review of some children's overall progress with a senior colleague	26
Compare different groups of children, e.g., boys and girls	22
Other	5

Timperley et al. suggest that while teachers are doing a great deal of assessment, they may be doing more than they need (as also suggested in the report of the 1996 NZCER survey), and not making adequate use of the data they collect to evaluate and improve their teaching programme because their focus remains on the individual child.

There may be several reasons for this. First, high and increased teacher workloads, which are largely the result of an increase in assessment and reporting work. Not only do these workloads give teachers less energy and time to learn new skills of data analysis, and a new focus, on programme; they may also give assessment a negative connotation, as something additional to teaching, and something demanded by central government agencies. Teachers, like principals and trustees, regard themselves as primarily accountable to children, not to government agencies.

Second, the central government agencies have largely excluded the education sector from policy development. Teachers therefore feel little "(co)-ownership". Third, the government agencies have also been advocating national assessment, which is the use of assessment for formative, reporting, and accountability purposes. This runs counter to the prime use of assessment for teachers, which is for diagnosis, for immediate use in the teaching activity itself, to aid learning. Hill (1999, pp. 176–178) provides a useful outline of the difficulties for teachers posed by these two competing frameworks for assessment, particularly given the way in which assessment designed to provide evidence related to accountability invariably edges out formative assessment.

If teachers' assessment practice is to extend to include programme evaluation as well as diagnostic assessment, it is unlikely to be achieved by criticism by government agencies. It would need to be uncoupled from mandatory national assessment for its usefulness in school development and improvement to be realised. It is not that teachers do not use or do not wish to have some means of comparing the achievement of their students with others. There is wide support in the school sector for benchmarks and exemplars. It is these which need further development, accompanied by widespread professional development.

Views on National Standards

National assessment at primary school level was proposed in a Government Green Paper in 1998 (*Assessment for Success in Primary Schools).* This attracted a large number of submissions, many from primary school staff. Most were opposed to introducing national externally referenced tests, on the grounds that these were inconsistent with the assessment principles set out in the national curriculum framework and the green paper itself, that effective assessment strategies were already being used by teachers and schools, and that national information on student performance was already available through SEA, NEMP, and ERO reports. There was strong support for the development of exemplar materials, which could provide "more focused, appropriate and effective assessment, consistent standards, and benchmarking of national standards/expectations." (Gilmore, 1998, p. ix). Around 10 percent of the submissions from schools and boards of trustees supported national testing, and around 18 percent of the parents who made submissions (Gilmore, 1998, p. 42). At the 1998 annual meeting of NZSTA, a resolution was passed to oppose compulsory national testing.

The Ministry of Education convened a National Assessment Group which included sector representatives; in early 1999 this group recommended that a range of national assessment tools should be made available, including exemplars, but not mandatory pen and paper tests which would make "league tables" inevitable. In March 1999, the Government announced that it would not introduce national tests in English and mathematics for primary students instead it would focus on improving assessment tools and providing national benchmarks.

Nonetheless, the Government announced in September 1999 that while it would develop exemplars, it would also move toward the introduction of national testing, starting with a trial in the year 2000 of literacy and numeracy tests for year 5 and year 7 students, in 10 percent of primary schools. The evaluation of the trial would also analyse how teachers used the tests, including reporting to parents.

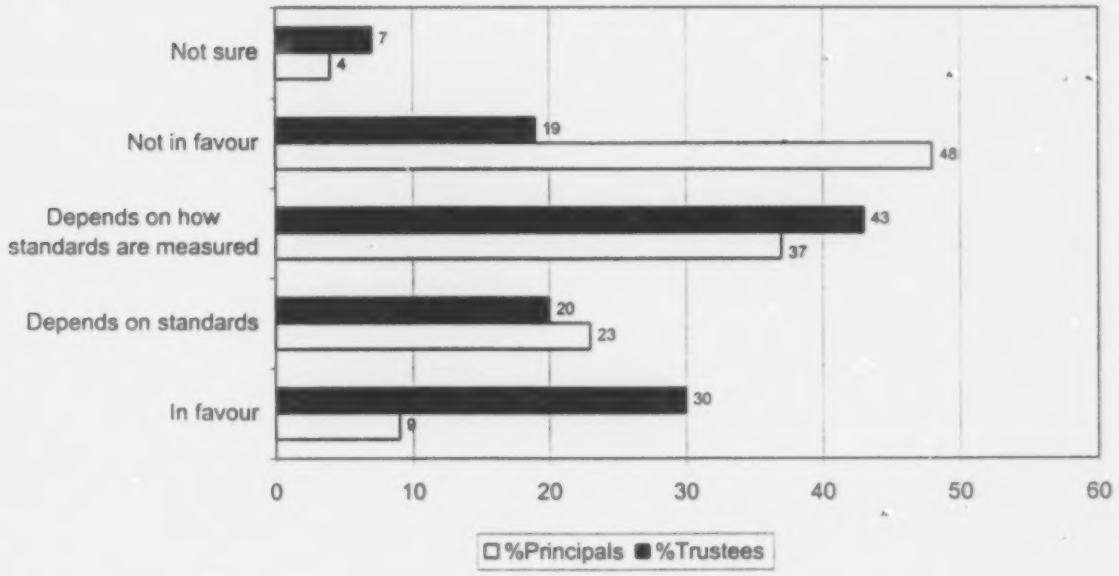
ERO has argued strongly for the introduction of national testing for accountability reasons (e.g., ERO, 1998, p. 16). The Ministry of Education's current regulatory review also focuses on accountability, and its discussion document suggests that school board reports should focus on educational achievement, in terms of school goals which would be set by the school, but not by the school alone, and that "Government might also want boards to report on progress towards government's goals" (Ministry of Education, 1999, p. 39).

Questions in this survey relating to national testing focused on the regulatory review suggestions that schools could be given more latitude ("deregulation") in exchange for meeting set performance standards. The recent government policy decision that national testing would be introduced was not announced at the time of the survey.

Should the government set specific minimum achievement standards for students and require schools to report to government and parents on how well children in the school are meeting those standards? Trustees are more likely to think so than principals.

Figure 13

Views on National Minimum Achievement Standards for Use in Reporting to Government and Parents



Concerns expressed by principals about setting a specific minimum achievement as a form of accountability included the need to treat students as individuals, with different patterns of progress (18 percent), the need to take into account initial achievement or school characteristics such as roll size and student mobility (12 percent), the negative impact this form of accountability could have on schools serving low-income communities (10 percent), the likely reduction in innovation and creativity (8 percent), and the increase in competition which would arise from the use of this data to make league tables comparing schools (6 percent).

Others noted that national benchmarks already existed, citing the NEMP standards or the ARBs, that this approach would add to existing high workloads for principals and teachers, and that it was difficult to assess everything taught in schools, to provide a full account.

The only school characteristic linked with differences in principals' views was full funding, with principals of fully funded schools being less opposed to government-set minimum standards (37 percent). However, their support was likely to depend on how these standards would be measured (49 percent).

Trustees who supported the introduction of specific minimum achievement standards saw them as being useful to show individual children's learning needs (10 percent), to compare the performance of schools (7 percent), or to provide accountability (4 percent). Those who were unsure or opposed thought that such standards did not take individual student needs into account (19 percent), that schools would suffer from league tables (5 percent), and that school workloads would increase (5 percent).

Resources

Teachers' Perspectives

The gradual decline in the proportion of teachers who thought they had adequate resources for their programme continued with the 1999 survey. Thirty-nine percent of teachers thought their resources were adequate, compared with 50 percent in 1989. Year 7–8 teachers were less likely to find their teaching resources adequate (23 percent).

The next table shows consistent trends in the areas where gaps exist. Over time, there has been a slight decline in the proportion of teachers who find their reading books inadequate, and those who find their library or reference material inadequate. Resources for Maori language and education appeared to improve between 1993 and 1996, but the 1999 figure may indicate a reversal of that trend.

Table 79

Teachers' Views of the Inadequacy of Teaching Materials

Resource	1990 % (n=211)	1993 % (n=189)	1996 % (n=197)	1999 % (n=214)
Computers	28	32	35	31
Technology	–	27	32	26
Mathematics	26	32	30	25
Audio/visual equipment	21	26	29	25
Science materials	19	24	20	24
Resources for special needs[n]	–	–	–	23
Tapes/videos/records	21	21	21	20
Physical education/sports	12	14	17	20
Reading books	24	25	23	18
Art equipment and materials	16	15	19	17
Musical instruments	18	17	17	17
Social/cultural studies	17	15	15	17
Resources for Maori education/language	23	21	11	16
Assessment[n]	–	–	–	15
Library/reference material	18	15	14	13
Scissors, etc[n]	–	–	–	13
English as a second language[n]	–	–	–	12
Stationery[n]	–	–	–	8

n = new question in 1999 survey.

Principals' Perspectives

Principals' answers show little change since 1990 in the proportion of those who find their school's equipment and materials poor. However most schools now have computers for administration. Computers for classroom use, science materials, Maori language materials, and musical instruments were the materials and equipment more likely to be of poor quality in schools.

Table 80

Adequacy of Schools' Equipment and Materials—Principals' Views

Type of Equipment	Very Good %		Adequate %		Poor %		None %	
	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=262)	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=262)	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=262)	1990 (n=207)	1999 (n=262)
Art and crafts material and equipment	31	24	65	69	4	7	0	0
Audio/visual equipment	27	18	60	65	13	17	0	0
Science materials	10	10	55	64	23	26	0	-
Computers for administration	28	26	17	58	2	14	52	2
Books and classroom material	18	32	70	61	11	6	–	–
Computers for classroom	23	19	36	50	28	30	10	–
Musical instruments	–	14	–	60	–	26	–	0
Physical education equipment	–	22	–	66	–	11	–	0
Maori language material	–	12	–	66	–	21	–	0
Medical/first aid equipment	–	24	–	72	–	3	–	0
Library books	–	33	–	55	–	12	–	–

Decile 1–4 schools were more likely to have poor library books (19 percent) compared with decile 5–10 schools (8 percent). The quality of children's musical instruments or access to them rose with decile from 6 percent of decile 1–2 schools rating this as very good to 27 percent of decile 9–10 schools. Decile 9–10 schools also rated their physical education equipment highly (36 percent as very good, compared with 18 percent of decile 1–8 schools). In one finding which goes against the general trend for any differences related to Maori enrolment to favour the very low- or low-Maori-enrolment schools, principals of low- and very low-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to rate their information technology for student use as poor (37 percent compared with 23 percent of principals at moderate- or high-Maori-enrolment schools).

State-integrated school principals gave lower ratings than state school principals to their library books, information technology for students' learning, and musical instruments.

Curriculum Initiatives

Almost all the schools in the survey focused more on some aspects of the curriculum more than others. The school focus for 1999 often reflected the order of revision of the national curriculum. Fifty-eight percent of the schools' main curriculum focus for the year was on information and

communication technology. Social studies focused the attention of 40 percent of the schools. Thirty-two percent gave emphasis to physical education/health, 23 percent, technology, and 17 percent to the school climate or discipline. Other particular emphases mentioned by around 5-8 percent were literacy, assessment, remedial work with students, or catering for special needs students.

Forty-five percent of principals also said that the Ministry of Education was an active participant or financial supporter of their curriculum project for the year. Other active participants or financial supporters were other local schools, voluntary organisations, and business firms (11 percent each), service organisations or the Specialist Education Services (5 percent each).

Do Communities Want Curriculum Change?

Twenty-three percent of the principals said there was community interest in changing or adding to their school's present programme; a further 30 percent were unsure. The kinds of changes which they thought people would like varied. Six percent of the principals mentioned more extracurricular activity, including sport, and 3 percent, extension progammes for gifted or talented students. Two percent each mentioned te reo Maori, more learning assistance for students, or more practical programmes, such as horticulture.

Principals at schools where there was some community interest in changing the school's programme were somewhat more likely to say there was some curriculum or programme innovation they would like to make, but had been unable to (60 percent compared with 46 percent of others).

Half the principals had a curriculum or programme innovation they would like to introduce, but could not. A further 11 percent were unsure. The main innovation mentioned was information technology, or more use of computers (17 percent). Nine percent mentioned change in a particular curriculum area, 6 percent would like to be able to respond more to students' individual learning styles, 5 percent wanted to work on thinking skills, and 4 percent would like to focus on students' special needs. Other innovations mentioned included different approaches to discipline, such as peer-mediation, smaller class sizes, or improvements to buildings.

The current review of education regulations emphasises regulation as a major barrier to school initiatives. However, only 3 percent of the principals who had innovations in mind saw the NEGs and NAGs as an obstacle, and 22 percent, the national curriculum, which includes achievement objectives, although the national curriculum (and associated assessment) is not included in the review of regulations.

Lack of money was the overwhelming barrier to change reported (95 percent of those wanting change), followed by lack of time (74 percent). Existing school buildings and grounds provided an obstacle for 22 percent of the principals seeking change. Ten percent mentioned lack of board of trustees commitment, and 8 percent, lack of staff commitment.

The Roles of Trustees and Parents in the School Curriculum

School boards' involvement in curriculum is mainly focused on planning and monitoring. More boards were bringing the two tasks together, by looking at student performance data in relation to their school development plan.

Table 81

Trustees' Perceptions of Their Board's Role in School Curriculum and Assessment

Role	1993 % (n=292)	1996 % (n=270)	1999 % (n=376)
Regular updates of school activities at board meetings	83	97	94
Discuss school activities/programmes with regard to school development plan	60	71	70
Discuss student performance data with regard to school development plan	18	40	53
Join staff in working groups on specific curriculum areas	12	17	12
Subcommittee works with school staff	8	16	18
No role	10	2	2

Trustees at provincial city schools were most likely to discuss school programmes with regard to the school development plan (82 percent), as were those at high-Maori-enrolment schools (82 percent compared with 67 percent of other schools).

Few trustees wanted to have more of a role in the school curriculum than they already had, as in previous NZCER surveys.

Summary

- The main changes in school curriculum over the period of the reforms have been spurred by the introduction of the new national curricula, and associated professional development. They have also come about as the result of national requirements for more information about children's learning progress. The main changes since 1996 are emphases on information technology, the curriculum statement currently becoming mandatory, and assessment.
- Few teachers lack confidence about teaching the areas of the new curriculum statements, with beginning teachers more confident than others about the statements currently being introduced or in draft form. A substantial minority feel more confident, however, about their ability to cover some areas better than others. Teachers are somewhat more confident about their ability to teach the curriculum than assess it.
- Teachers would like more resources, particularly related to assessment, but also specific guides to different curriculum areas. Where they would like to make changes themselves, these largely refer to changes in assessment and resources. This may indicate that most teachers feel they have sufficient latitude in the curriculum and how they teach it. Barriers to their making changes focus on time and money, but also on lack of teaching resources and professional development. Few mentioned the national education guidelines, or the national curriculum.

- Teachers could see some benefits to the increase in their assessment work. They saw these mainly in terms of being able to improve their response to individual children's needs. The costs of increased assessment however were in time: to cover the curriculum, to provide individual children with attention during class, and to prepare or plan lessons.
- In response to the new curriculum statements and the need to show evidence of student progress and achievement required by ERO, most teachers appear to have added new assessments to their existing practices, increasing rather than rationalising the number of assessments they use. Most teachers were using some standardised tests; they were also using criteria taken from the curriculum level statements. Spelling tests are much more common now for children in the first three years of school than in 1989. (Anecdotal evidence indicates that schools have increased these to satisfy parents.) Children's self-assessment of their work has also increased. But use of the very full primary progress records, which gave comprehensive information about children to parents and children's next teacher, has halved.
- Teachers' use of assessment continues to focus on formative uses, to help individual children's learning. Many teachers are also using the assessment data to inform their class programme, although more analytic use of assessment data is not yet widespread. About half the teachers were supplying assessment data to be used by those who might make more analytic use of assessment data, their board, and ERO. There has been a steady growth in the proportion of boards of trustees looking at student achievement data in relation to school development.
- While teachers and principals have expressed interest in having national exemplars in assessment, they have opposed national mandatory tests. This survey showed little support from principals in using government-set minimal standards as part of schools' contracts with government, although more so from trustees.
- Around a quarter of the principals thought there was some community interest in making changes to their school programme, with a wide range of things different communities were interested in. Around half the principals also had innovations they would have liked to introduce themselves. Information technology featured prominently. As with others in schools who would like to make changes, time and money are the main barriers. Principals also mentioned the school buildings. Few mentioned education regulations; indeed the national curriculum statements were seen as more of a barrier to change.
- Most schools have introduced social skills programmes and problem-solving approaches. Around a third now have accelerated learning programmes, teaching based on different learning styles, or thinking skills, and remedial classes in mathematics. Although fully funded schools have been seen as having more flexibility than others, their level of innovation was much the same. It is interesting to consider the kinds of innovations made by schools in the last few years, and to see that many of them, other than structural changes, could also have been made before decentralisation.

13 SCHOOL PLANNING, POLICIES, AND PROVISION

Before 1989, most primary schools had a school plan, which could be seen by school inspectors. These plans were often descriptions of the existing staffing and curriculum provision at the school. Decentralisation made schools more responsible than previously for forward planning, and for defining their own "character", in terms of mission statements, guiding principles, and goals. Government set the framework for charter content, with some mandatory components which included equity provisions.

Tension between the local "autonomy", which some in schools felt they had been promised through decentralisation, and accepting some local responsibility (in return for government funding) for national goals was felt early on in the reforms. This was particularly evident when the original contractual form, in which government money was to be given to ensure schools could meet their own goals, was quickly revised when it was realised that this would mean that government education funding would in fact be decided by individual school boards, given that government did not have the resources to meet all such goals, or even to negotiate with some 2,600 school boards to the depth that such a contract would have required.

Schools were to be evaluated in terms of their charter goals. The National government which took office in 1990, softened the equity requirements, which had been set out in the very clear and terms which have just been announced, almost a decade later, as mandatory for all schools in terms of reporting on their progress in reducing achievement gaps between Maori and non-Maori students. The regulatory review also heralds the possibility that charters could become more hard-edged documents, true contracts, setting out goals which schools take responsibility for meeting, in return, perhaps, for some greater latitude as regards other aspects of government regulations.

This chapter looks first at what has happened with charters, which were originally one of the flagships of the new school self-management, providing the base principles and goals (rather like an organisation's corporate plan), then turns to school development plans, which can be seen as the "action plans" of the charters. It then examines whether school decision-making processes have become more inclusive of parents over time, and what boards of trustees do when faced with policy issues or problems, before turning to look at what difference school responsibility for its own provision has made in key areas of school work, provision for different groups of students, and the introduction of innovations which could indicate a desire to be responsive to community needs (and ensure student numbers).

Charters

Sixty-one percent of the principals and 55 percent of the trustees said their school had revised its charter in the last three years (up from 46 percent of principals in the 1996 NZCER survey), and a further 23 percent of principals and 21 percent of trustees said their school was in the process of revision. Only 14 percent of the principals said their charter had not been revised.

Almost all those who had revised their charter had recognised central requirements to specifically include the national education guidelines and national administration guidelines (NEGs and NAGs), and had simplified and shortened it. Just over half of those who had revised their charter had also incorporated their own local curriculum goals. (It is not clear whether these were already included in their charter, or whether local curriculum goals had been revised also.)

Most principals who had revised their charters commented that they had done so to make it relevant and up to date, or to make it more compatible with government requirements.

There was some growth in the proportion of principals who thought their charter was a working document in the school, 69 percent compared with 58 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey. Seventy-seven percent of trustees, and 63 percent of teachers also thought it was a working document in their school.

Principals at schools which had revised their charter in the last two years were more likely to regard it as a working document (70 percent compared with 41 percent of those who were in the process of revising their charter). A similar pattern was evident among trustees (90 percent compared with 71 percent).

Few principals, trustees, or teachers thought that their charter had had no effect at all on their school, although a significant minority thought it had simply brought together what the school was already doing, as shown in the table below.

Table 82

Views on Effects of School Charters within School

Effect	Trustees % (n=376)	Teachers % (n=396)	Principals % (n=262)
Helped in development of school policies	49	44	55
Helped school planning	40	34*+	40*+
School already doing what was in charter	27	21	31
No effect	6	6	10*
Helped allocate resources	19	17	17
Changed school administration	6	7	10
Increased parent participation in school	8	10	10
Increased equitable education	13	9	10
Led to some curriculum changes	8	12	12
No effect—not important to funding/review agencies	2	2	2

* = statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "-" means a decrease.

Teachers at high-Maori-enrolment schools were most likely to think their school's charter had provided fairer education for the school's children (15 percent). Trustees at decile 1–2 schools, provincial city, and moderate- or high-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to think that their school's charter had helped allocate resources. Trustees at decile 1–2 schools were more likely to think it had helped increase parent participation in the school, although at a low level (16 percent).

School Development/Strategic Plans

All the schools either had a school development or strategic plan (86 percent), or were working on one (13 percent). This is a similar picture as in the 1993 and 1996 NZCER surveys. State-integrated schools were more likely than state schools to be developing one (32 percent).

Recent school development or strategic plans in 1999 also covered much the same areas as before. Curriculum (90 percent), property management (85 percent), and staff development (75 percent) were the areas most likely to be covered. Finance was included by 67 percent of the schools. Other areas were assessment (53 percent), goals for student achievement (47 percent), staffing (43 percent), board of trustees training (34 percent), school promotion/marketing (32 percent), and special education (27 percent).

The fact that finance was not a universal inclusion indicates that a significant minority of school development plans continue not to supply the integration of budget with activities which is the model for strategic planning in other organisations, and which would fit with the conventional public sector management model.

However, more principals than in 1996 thought that their school development plan helped them stay within their budget (47 percent compared with 37 percent). The main use of the school development plan was to keep schools generally on track (85 percent). But only 36 percent of principals in this study thought their plan had led to positive changes in their teaching programme. This may indicate the continuing under-resourcing of schools which principals report in chapter 3, or the importance of the national curriculum statements in setting schools' priorities for their professional development and attention.

Some schools found it difficult to keep to their plans because of outside demands and changes (18 percent), particularly those whose student numbers had varied each year, or had increased, or because of changes in roll numbers (11 percent), staff changes (7 percent), or changes in their board of trustees (5 percent). Principals of decile 7-10 schools were less likely to note change in roll numbers as a difficulty (4 percent). Twenty-one percent of principals of high-Maori-enrolment schools noted that changes in roll numbers made it difficult for them to adhere to their school development plan, compared with 7 percent of other schools.

Most of these plans went beyond a single year, with 42 percent looking ahead two or three years, and 34 percent, four or more years. Rural schools were somewhat less likely to have school development plans of four years or longer. Principals of rural schools were more likely, however, to note that their plan kept them within budget (59 percent compared with 37 percent of urban schools).

School Decision Making

The next table shows principals' perceptions of who is involved in policy decisions at their school. Compared with 1989 and 1990 figures, teachers are slightly less involved 10 years after the reforms began in curriculum and budget allocation, and the allocation of teachers to classes. This fits with teachers' reports of their involvement in school decision making (*see* chapter 10). Trustees are more involved in decision making on school discipline, curriculum, assessment, and the allocation of teachers to classes. Parents are slightly more involved in discipline policy (the main issue they

raise with boards of trustees), and slightly less on curriculum and assessment. There has been little change in student involvement in school decision making over the past ten years.

Table 83

Principals' Perception of Teachers, Board of Trustees, and Parent Participation in School Decision Making

People Involved → ↓ Area (n = 262)	Teachers %	Trustees %	Parents %	Students %
Discipline policy	84	77	46	19
Curriculum	84	47* -	25	12
Student assessment policy	83	48	17	2
Performance appraisal policy	73	71	2	0
Budget allocation	65	96	7* -	3
Special needs funding allocation	53	58* +	18	0
Allocation of teachers to classes	42	19	3	0
Maori language funding	35	52	5	0

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Others were also involved in school decision making, particularly for Maori, and those with special needs. Around 3 percent of the principals reported whanau and kaiarahi reo involvement in school decisions on budget allocation, curriculum, and discipline. Seven percent of the principals reported whanau were involved in decisions on the use of Maori-language funding, and 4 percent, their school's kaiarahi reo.

Specialist Education Services (SES) was involved in special needs funding allocation at 24 percent of the schools, and Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour (RTLBs) at 12 percent. RTLBs were also involved in decisions about discipline policy at 12 percent of the schools.

Parental Involvement in Policy Making

Alhough principals report some parental involvement in policy making, the number of parents who do take part is small: from the parents' account, only 3 percent. But few parents felt excluded from the school policy processes. Sixty-six percent of the parents were satisfied with the way their school was developing and reviewing its policies. But 24 percent felt they did not know what was happening. Eight percent of parents would like to have more input or information. Only 2 percent said they were not really interested. Parents in schools with rolls under 100 were less likely to feel that they did not know what was happening with policy development in their school (9 percent).

Nineteen percent of trustees were unhappy about the level of parent involvement in developing policies at their school, although a further 24 percent were happy with it for some areas of school life, but not others. Forty-two percent were generally happy with parent involvement levels in policy development at their school.

Board Responses to Major Policy Decisions

Only 26 percent of the trustees thought their board had not faced an issue or problem with respect to major policy decisions. This is much lower than the 43 percent in 1996, or 42 percent in 1993. Thirty-seven percent of the trustees whose school had a major policy issue to resolve reported that their board had consulted parents on major policy issues.

Thirty-six percent of trustees said their board had consulted other local schools, and 4 percent had carried out negotiations with local schools. Advice was sought from NZSTA (36 percent), the Ministry of Education (27 percent), NZEI (25 percent), the Principals' Federation (12 percent), non-local schools (8 percent), or colleges of education (5 percent). Three percent of trustees said their board had employed a private consultant.

School Responsiveness to Different Students

Because of the original emphasis in the reforms on improving the achievement of students from groups identified as disadvantaged, and the availability of useful resources in a number of these areas, due to central development in the late 1980s, there was initially some substantial growth in the proportion of schools offering some policy or programme for these students.

However, this growth did not continue after there was less central emphasis on these groups in government policy, and although there has been more emphasis on the need to close achievement gaps between different groups of students in the last three years, still there is little improvement on the proportion of schools responding to these students' needs, unless there is a generic response, which is not identified with particular groups of students, as in "students at risk".

Table 84

Programmes or Policies To Counter Disadvantage

Programme/Policy	Some %	In Development %	None %		
			1990 (n=207)	1996 (n=181)	1999 (n=262)
Maori education programme—all students	69	13	–	15	18
Mainstreaming of students with special needs	45	6	48	44	48
For gifted students	48	13	47	38	39
For Maori students	41	9	38	49	48
Anti-sexism	42	2	52	64	54
English as a second language	33	4	70	64	63
Anti-racism	29	1	72	78	70
For Pacific Island students	9	2	84	92	88
For male students	9	4	–	–	86
For female students	10	2	–	–	86
To counter bullying	77	8	–	–	15
For students at risk	71	6	–	–	22

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Rural and small schools were less likely than schools in other locations to have policies or programmes for different groups, including mainstreaming and provision for gifted students, and to counter bullying. Programmes or policies for students at risk were also less likely in small schools. State-integrated schools were slightly less likely to have programmes for particular groups. All the schools which had programmes for male, or female, students, were state schools.

Decile 1–2 schools, which have the highest proportion of Maori students, were most likely to have some programme or policy for them (62 percent); such provision decreased as school decile increased, to 26 percent of decile 7-10 schools. A similar pattern was evident in the provision of particular policies for Pacific Island students (23 percent of decile 1-2 schools had some policy or programme, falling to 4 percent of decile 5-10 schools). Provision of a Maori education programme for all students was least likely in decile 9-10 schools (52 percent). Programmes for students at risk were less likely to be provided in decile 7-10 schools (61 percent).

Sixty-one percent of high-Maori-enrolment schools had particular programmes or policies for Maori students. Maori education programmes or policies for all students were also more common in moderate or high-Maori-enrolment schools (81 percent). Proportion of Maori enrolment was unrelated to school provision of anti-racism programme or policy.

Fully funded schools were more likely to have policies or programmes for mainstreaming students (63 percent compared with 40 percent of centrally funded schools).

These patterns are largely consistent with those found in the previous NZCER surveys. What now seems apparent is that a critical mass of students with particular needs is necessary to develop responsiveness to those students (*see also* Wylie & Wilkie, forthcoming for a full analysis of the available data in relation to provision for Maori students). Central impetus for change through inclusion in charters and resourcing, both in terms of school funding and ensuring adequate supplies of teachers, teaching materials, and professional development also help.

Changes in Assessment, Reporting, and School Presentation

The next table shows that many principals report their school making major changes to staff appraisal and student assessment over the decade, and, in their perception, as a result of the reforms which began in 1989, and included curriculum updating as well as school self–management.

Change to student assessment and reporting student achievement to parents occurred between 1993 and 1996. This seems to reflect the introduction of the curriculum statements, and more emphasis on these two aspects in ERO reviews. School promotion or marketing has remained much the same since 1991, but presentation of school or class programmes to parents tripled between 1993 and 1996. Few major changes occurred in the areas asked about between 1993 and 1996, other than fewer principals feeling that major change had been made in relation to staff development.

Table 85

Changes in Assessment, Reporting, and School Presentation as a Result of the Education Reforms

Area	Major Change %				Minor Change %				No Change %			
	1991 (n=186)	1993 (n=191)	1996 (n=181)	1999	1991	1993	1996	1999	1991	1993	1996	1999
Student assessment	22	37	66	65	47	48	29	31	29	13	2	2
Staff appraisal	–	59	61	74	–	30	33	25	–	8	6	0
Internal monitoring and evaluation of school/ class programmes	19	35	55	52	53	51	39	41	27	12	3	5
Staff development	–	–	44	25	–	–	41	59	–	–	18	15
Reporting student achievement to parents	11	16	38	45	41	53	43	47	47	29	18	8
School promotion/ marketing	19	23	22	22	51	40	41	34	28	34	31	40
Presentation of school/ class programme to parents	6	7	21	21	42	57	55	53	50	32	20	22
Appointments/contracts	–	–	–	11	–	–	–	52	–	–	–	34

Rural and small schools were less likely to have made major changes to their school assessment policies, or reporting to parents. State-integrated schools were more likely to have made no changes to their school promotion (68 percent), not surprising given that many of these schools had reached capacity and had stable rolls. The next chapter shows that schools whose rolls had declined were more likely to have changed their school promotion. Otherwise school characteristics were not reflected in the kinds of changes made, indicating the leading role played by central policy and monitoring of school provision through ERO.

Innovations in Schools

Many schools in the study have introduced programmes to counter bullying and improve social skills (recall that student behaviour or discipline is the main issue parents raise with their board of trustees), and around half have introduced problem-solving approaches. Only a small proportion of schools have made structural changes, e.g., recapitation or sharing of resources, or offering early childhood education on site, or a school bus, which could enhance the school's accessibility to some parents, and somewhat surprisingly—given continuing publicity—few schools have introduced school-business links, or taken part in the primary enterprise programme, which allows the opportunity to integrate business experience with curriculum areas.

Table 86

Innovations in Primary Schools 1996–1999

Innovation	(N=262) %
Anti-bullying/social skills/behaviour skills programme	74
Problem-solving approaches programme	54
Accelerated learning programmes	35
Teaching based on different learning styles/multiple intelligence approach	34
Thinking skills approaches/programme	32
Remedial classes in mathematics	30
Introduced/changed uniforms	25
Another language other than English	24
Offered after-school programme	20
School-business links or programmes	8
Shared classes/teachers with another school (state)	8
Offered early childhood education on the same site/nearby	8
Started a school bus for non-local students	6
Recapitated to become a full primary school	3
Primary enterprise programme	2
Shared classes/teachers with another school (state-integrated)	2

Rural schools and provincial city schools were less likely to offer after-school programmes, or introduce or change uniforms. All the schools which had started after-school programmes in the last three years were state schools.

Again, school decile does show some differences. Decile 1–2 schools were more likely to have initiated school-business links (15 percent), or offer early childhood education on the same site (17 percent), as were high-Maori-enrolment schools, but less likely to have initiated thinking skills (19 percent), or problem-solving approaches to learning (34 percent). Decile 1–4 schools were also more likely to offer after-school programmes (28 percent compared with 15 percent of decile 5–10 schools). Decile 7–10 schools were less likely to have introduced anti-bullying or social skills programmes (63 percent). The innovations in low-decile or high-Maori-enrolment schools address resourcing, rolls, and links between home and school, rather than pedagogy.

Schools with rolls under 35 were least likely to have introduced accelerated learning programmes, problem-solving approaches, or thinking skills; this may be because teachers were more likely to know their students individually and to be responding to individual needs already. School size was not related to the sharing of classes or teachers with other schools. Fully funded schools were no more, or less, innovative than others.

Truancy

Government support for schemes to reduce truancy has increased markedly in the past three years. Thirty-two percent of the principals said their school had an initiative in place to lower truancy, an increase from the 22 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey. Government funding was more likely to be used to pay for these initiatives (56 percent of those with initiatives in place, compared with 35 percent in the 1996 NZCER survey), and many more schools were involved in truancy schemes which included a number of schools (52 percent compared with 23 percent).

Truancy schemes were most frequent in small-town schools (59 percent), and least frequent for the smallest schools (16 percent) or schools in rural areas (18 percent). They were closely linked to socioeconomic decile, rising from 9 percent of decile 9–10 schools to 60 percent of decile 1–2 schools, with a similar trend evident in relation to Maori enrolment.

Reflecting the increased access to government funding, there was an increase in the proportion of schools with truancy initiatives which used a truancy scheme or agency (49 percent compared with 28 percent in 1996). Twenty-four percent used a truancy officer, 23 percent contacted parents, and 20 percent had a monitoring system within the school. Four percent of principals mentioned preventive approaches such as providing certificates or rewards for good attendance.

Summary

- Ten years after the reforms, central frameworks and requirements appear to be influential in shaping school policy development and planning, at least to the extent of timing and format. The charters have received a new lease of life with the requirement that they be revised to incorporate changes in the national education guidelines. Few in schools feel that their charter has made no difference at all to what happens in their school, with most use being in the development of school policies and planning. A substantial minority think that the charters simply record what was already happening in their school. Some of the major reform goals, such as increasing parental participation, linking budget processes to school goals and bridging achievement gaps between different groups of students, appear less likely to be linked to the introduction or renewal of school charters.
- Most schools have some form of school development or strategic plan. It is not clear from the information gathered in this survey whether these take the form they take in government agencies or business organisations. While many include financial planning as well as curriculum and staffing, around 30 percent do not, making the kind of integration implicit in the individual-unit as business of the public sector reforms more difficult. It is also more difficult for schools with declining rolls to keep to their plans.
- As reported by principals, parents are only slightly more involved in school policy making than they were at the start of the reforms, and that is in the area of school discipline. But parents do not appear to want more say, perhaps seeing trustees as their representatives. Trustees have wider involvement than they did in 1989 and 1990. Student involvement has not changed over the decade. As shown in chapter 10, teachers are slightly less involved than at the start of school self-management.

- School responsiveness to the needs of different students is more likely to take the form of across-the-board programmes, e.g., to counter bullying, than be aimed specifically at named groups of students. Responsiveness to Maori students' needs appears to rely on having high Maori enrolment.
- There was no growth in the proportion of schools which made major changes in their assessment, reporting, and school presentation over the last three years. Changes to assessment and reporting to parents were more likely to be major between 1993 and 1996. Presentation of school or class programmes to parents tripled between 1993 and 1996, although patterns of change in more direct school marketing remained much the same from 1991. Schools whose rolls declined were more likely to make major changes to their school marketing.
- Many schools have introduced programmes to counter bullying and improve social skills, or have focused on problem-solving approaches. Few schools made structural changes, or introduced school-business links. School characteristics were largely unassociated with differences in changes in school programmes or innovations, but low-decile or high-Maori-enrolment schools were more likely to introduce aspects which could improve their resourcing, rolls, and links between home and school. Schemes to reduce truancy were more widespread, because of increased government funding.

14 ROLL CHANGES AND COMPETITION

As more and more school funding is decided by student numbers, roll size and roll stability have become increasingly important to primary schools. Central government agencies have also paid increasing attention to school size and roll changes, with ERO suggesting that small schools may not provide value for money (ERO 1999a), and the new property management guidelines and the property bulk funding trial appearing to favour schools where rolls are growing (Cassie, 1999b). While the latter makes sense in terms of supporting growth, it may mean that property issues in schools with stable or declining rolls remain unaddressed, possibly making these schools less attractive to prospective families. Certainly some principals and teacher representatives feel that schools have been sent an implicit message that they are being judged in terms of their ability to grow, whether this is related to population changes or parental choice, rather than educational need (Rivers, 1999). In this survey, principals at schools whose rolls had increased by 50 percent or more since 1991 were less likely to find their school funding inadequate than others.

Patterns in Primary School Roll Changes

Overall primary enrolment increased by 13 percent between 1989 to 1998., with most of this growth after 1993. Between 1993 and 1998 the average primary school experienced growth of 15 percent in its roll, but a quarter or primary schools lost 6 percent or more of their roll. Another quarter of primary schools grew rapidly, by 30 percent or more (Minister of Education, 1999, p. 19). Schools in low socioeconomic communities (deciles 1–3) were twice as likely to suffer significant roll decline than decile 8–10 schools, (Ministry of Education, 1999).

In a study of "failing" primary schools, which were categorised as those whose overall level of performance in their three-yearly ERO review was unsatisfactory enough to warrant a follow-up review, Connelly (1999) found that such schools were more likely to have lost students. They also had higher proportions of Maori and Pacific Island students, and a lower average roll size than non-failing schools (102 students compared with 241).

Looking at a longer time-span than the Ministry of Education analysis, between 1991 and 1998, 27 percent of the schools in this survey lost more than 6 percent of their roll, with 11 percent in having 75 percent or less of the students they had in 1991. Twenty percent of the schools in the survey had grown by 50 percent in this period. Around a quarter had much the same roll as in 1991 (between 90 and 110 percent).

While schools with rolls over 300 were more likely to have gained students since 1991, so were schools with rolls of 35 to 99. Schools with rolls under 35, or rolls of 100–199 were most likely to have lost students.

Decile 9–10 schools were much less likely to lose students over this period, and much more likely than other schools to gain students. The same pattern was evident for very low-Maori-enrolment schools.

Analysis of the impact of school choice at secondary level suggests that "white flight" has occurred in some areas, and that there has been some polarisation of schools in terms of the proportion of Maori students on the roll (Lauder, Hughes, & Watson, 1999). Only 15 percent of

the survey schools had between 90 to 100 percent of the same proportion of Maori students on their roll in 1998 as they had had in 1991. Twenty-six percent of schools had 75 percent or less of the school's 1991 proportion of Maori students in 1998. Forty-three percent of very low-Maori-enrolment schools lost Maori enrolment, compared with 11 percent of high-Maori-enrolment schools. Seventeen percent of decile 1–2 schools had lost Maori enrolment, compared with 30 percent of decile 9–10 schools. On the other hand, 25 percent of schools had growth of 50 percent or more in terms of their Maori enrolment, fairly evenly spread across deciles, and higher for low- and high-Maori-enrolment schools. The data do seem to indicate that there has been a growth in polarisation at both ends of primary school intakes, mainly along ethnic lines, during the first decade of school self-management in New Zealand.

Schools where rolls had declined below 1991 levels differed from other schools on some indicators of resourcing and public image. They were more likely to have difficulty getting parent help, to have made major changes to their school promotion and marketing over the past three years, and to have had their ERO review reported in the media, with some negative impact for the school. Principals at these schools were less likely to note community interest in changing or adding to the school's present programme. Principal turnover was also higher in these schools, with 18 percent having more than four principals over the past decade, compared with 10 percent in other schools.

Roll Stability

Only 29 percent of the principals said that their roll numbers had been stable over the last five years. Twenty-four percent noted fluctuations in their roll, 32 percent had experienced a continual increase, and 13 percent, a continual decline in their school roll.

Stable rolls or steady declines were unrelated to the socioeconomic decile of schools. But decile 1–2 schools were more likely to have fluctuations in their school roll (38 percent compared with 16 percent of decile 9–10 schools), and decile 9–10 schools were most likely to have had steady increases (45 percent, compared with 23 percent of decile 1–2 schools).

In terms of Maori enrolment, the schools with the most stability were those with very low-Maori-enrolment (41 percent, compared with 24 percent for other schools). The higher the proportion of Maori enrolment, the greater the likelihood of fluctuations in the school roll (16 percent of very low-Maori-enrolment schools rising to 36 percent of high-Maori-enrolment schools).

State-integrated schools were more likely to have steady rolls over the last five years (53 percent compared with 28 percent of state schools). This may reflect the fact that they were more likely to be full to capacity: 53 percent could not take every student who applied, compared with 7 percent of state schools.

Reasons for Changes in School Rolls

Changes in school rolls over this period were attributed by principals mainly to general population changes in the area (57 percent), including loss of rural jobs, and transient populations related to employment and housing opportunities. Thirty-one percent of the principals felt that

change in student or parent preferences was the main reason for changes in their school roll. This is much higher than the 19 percent of principals in the 1996 survey, accounting for roll changes over the period 1989 to 1996.

Principals at schools whose rolls had steadily increased or decreased were more likely than those whose rolls had fluctuated over the last five years to think that changes in student or parent preferences had been a factor in their roll change (49 percent, 43 percent, and 27 percent respectively).

Roll changes over time showed some relationship to principal turnover. Thirty percent of the schools whose rolls had remained stable or increased had the same principal for the last decade, compared with 14 percent of those whose schools had fluctuating or declining rolls. Schools where rolls had fluctuated or declined over the last five years were twice as likely to have principals who were new to the school (36 percent compared with 18 percent of those where rolls stayed stable or increased), and around half as likely to have principals who had been with the school for 11 years or more.

Current principals of schools with fluctuating or declining rolls were half as likely as those whose schools had stable or increasing rolls to think they would still be there in five years, but more likely to think they would have moved to another school (40 percent compared with 26 percent), or be taking a break from teaching (10 percent compared with 1 percent).

Schools which had steadily increased rolls over the last five years were more likely to be offering something for gifted students, and mainstreaming students. They had an increase in the number of prospective parents visiting the school. Schools that had steadily lost students were more likely to have made major changes to school promotion and marketing, staffing, and staff appraisal than others. They were also more likely to offer after-school programmes (34 percent compared with 18 percent of other schools).

Schools that had lost students, or experienced a fluctuating roll over the last five years, were more likely to describe their relations with other schools as competitive (40 percent compared with 24 percent of those whose roll was stable, or had increased).

School Capacity

As in 1996, only 11 percent of the primary and intermediate schools in the survey did not have places on their roll for every student who applied, with another 2 percent noting a lack of places if students wanted to enrol during the school year.

School characteristics and recent roll history were related to school capacity. Schools with rolls of over 300 were less likely to have places for all applicants (75 percent compared with 97 percent of the smallest schools), and most likely to have enrolment schemes (41 percent compared with 6 percent of the smallest schools). Rural schools were more likely to have places for all who applied (95 percent compared with 80 percent of city schools), and least likely to have enrolment schemes (9 percent compared with 26 percent of city schools). Few decile 1–4 schools had fewer places than applicants (6 percent), compared with 17 percent of decile 5–10 schools. Six percent of moderate- and high-Maori-enrolment schools had no spare capacity, compared with 16 percent of schools with very low or low-Maori-enrolment.

Schools where rolls had increased or stayed much the same over the last five years were more likely to have no places for all applicants (16 percent each).

Thirty-nine percent of the principals would like to see an increase in their school's capacity to take students. By contrast, 30 percent felt their school roll had reached its desirable maximum. This is somewhat lower than the 43 percent who were happy with their roll in the 1996 survey. Principals of "popular" schools, those where student numbers had increased over the last five years, were slightly more likely to want no increase in the school's capacity (41 percent). Only 17 percent of principals of schools with rolls of 300 or more wanted to take more students, compared with 45 percent of smaller schools. City schools were more likely to want no increase in their capacity to take students (36 percent compared with 22 percent of rural schools). There was no relation with socioeconomic decile.

Twenty-one percent of the principals would like more students, if they could have more buildings to accommodate them: also a decrease on the 1996 survey figure, of 35 percent.

Enrolment Schemes

Enrolment schemes allow schools which are full to capacity to avoid overcrowding by limiting enrolment in terms of their scheme's criteria. Originally, the criteria for these schemes could be set without reference to family proximity to a school, and there were complaints that children who lived close to a school were being turned down, particularly in Auckland, where the growth in primary-school-aged children had outstripped school supply. The Education Amendment Act 1998 required boards to have individual school schemes approved by the Ministry of Education, after developing it through community consultation, and incorporating a recognition of the principle that students should be able to attend "a reasonably convenient" school. This does not necessarily guarantee access to the nearest school. Lauder et al. (1999, p. 94) suggest that these differences will not mean that schools have to alter their schemes substantially, and that little will change in terms of making student access to schools with enrolment schemes more equitable.

Although only 11 percent of the primary schools in this survey were full to capacity, 18 percent of schools had an enrolment scheme (slightly less than the 23 percent in the 1996 survey), and 17 percent were likely to have one in 2000. Half the schools with enrolment schemes were changing them to suit the new requirements, but most were making only small alterations.

Schools where student numbers had increased over the last five years were most likely to have enrolment schemes (29 percent), as were decile 5–10 schools (22 percent compared with 11 percent of decile 1–4 schools), and schools with very low or low Maori enrolment (23 percent compared with 12 percent of moderate or high Maori enrolment).

Student Turnover

The average number of students who transferred out of primary schools in the survey during the 1998 school year was 22.5, with a range from none to 280. Incoming transfers (other than new entrants) ranged from none to 384, with an average of 28 students.

A quarter of the schools lost 4 percent or less of their school roll over the year; 21 percent lost 5 to 9 percent; 27 percent lost between 10 and 19 percent; and 17 percent lost more than 20

percent of their roll, with the highest loss of students being 46 percent of the roll. A loss of 20, percent or more of students indicates some instability for staff and other students, and for school planning: it is therefore of concern that close to one in five primary schools was experiencing this level of loss of students.

Students transferring into schools during the school year made up less than 6 percent of the school roll for a quarter of the schools; between 7 and 10 percent for 23 percent of the schools; between 11 and 19 percent for 28 percent of the schools. Twenty percent or more of the school's roll was made up of students other than new entrants for 25 percent of the schools. Such differences in student turnover have implications for school management and planning; they also have implications for the use of mandatory tests to assess school performance.

Most schools gained more students during the 1998 year than they lost, although 30 percent of the schools had fewer students coming in than students who left during the year.

Schools with the highest student-turnover rates (more than 20 percent) were more likely to be low-decile schools (42 percent compared with 7 percent of decile 9–10 schools), and those with rolls over 120 (33 percent compared with 11 percent of schools with rolls under 120). No state-integrated schools and only 8 percent of very low-Maori-enrolment schools had high student turnover rates.

Competition Between Schools

Most principals regarded their relations with other schools as friendly, more so than in 1996. But competitive relations were also more noticeable than they had been in 1996.

Table 87

Views of Relations With Other Schools

	Principals %		Teachers %		Trustees %	
	1996	1999	1996	1999	1996	1999
Co-operative	52	57	36	33	49	51
Friendly	53	70	61	61	58	60
Part of a cluster	-	52	-	38	-	38
Some competition	21	30	17	18	15	20
No contact	1	0	6	6	1	1

As in 1996, competitive relations were unlikely to occur on their own. Sixty-seven percent of the schools describing their relations with other local schools as competitive also described these relations as friendly, 56 percent were part of a cluster, and 36 percent had co-operative relations. Only seven schools had nothing but competitive relations with other schools.

This indicates that schools exist in complex networks with each other. For example, a school may be competing with one local school while remaining on friendly terms with another.

The smallest schools, often in remote areas, experienced least competition (10 percent), with those between 100–299 students experiencing more (43 percent). Principals at very low-Maori-enrolment schools were less likely to report competition than others (21 percent compared with

36 percent of others). There were no differences related to school decile. Principals at schools which lost students between 1991 and 1998 were more likely to mention competitive relations (46 percent compared with 25 percent of those whose rolls had stayed much the same or increased over the period, whether the increase was large or small).

Principals at state schools were more likely to report that they experienced some competition with other local schools (32 percent compared with 5 percent of state-integrated schools), with a similar but not statistically significant trend among teachers. Trustees at fully funded schools were more likely to describe their school's relation with others as competitive (28 percent compared with 17 percent for trustees at centrally funded schools). However, this perception was not shared by principals and teachers at fully funded schools.

Among teachers, co-operation between schools was most likely to be mentioned by rural teachers (44 percent compared with 28 percent of city teachers), and decile 7–10 teachers (42 percent compared with 26 percent of teachers at decile 1–6 schools).

Small-town and provincial city teachers noted more competitive relations between schools (35 percent) compared with their city and rural counterparts (14 percent). A sense that the school faced increased competition was higher in schools with rolls over 100.

Principals of schools who found themselves in competition with another school or schools were just as likely as others to have initiated different programmes and policies (*see* chapter 13). They do not appear to be passive in trying to attract students, but they were more likely to feel that they could not initiate some curriculum or programme innovation (62 percent compared with 35 percent of other schools), and more likely to have prospective parents asking to see school ERO reports (41 percent compared with 30 percent).

Summary

- Since 1996, more principals feel their school is competing with others, although few schools have only competitive relations with all other local schools. More principals feel that parent or student preferences are the reason for changes in their school roll.
- One of the costs of increased parental choice of school, has been a preference for schools with low or very low Maori enrolment. The reforms appear to have acted in an unintended manner which has increased ethnic polarisation in primary schools as well as secondary. This might not matter so much if school roll size or stability were not key to school resourcing, as more and more is decided by roll numbers, rather than providing some funding through infrastructure or staffing, and the ability of schools to plan ahead and focus on school development. As it is, the schools which are least likely to be serving one of the prime groups which was to benefit from the reforms are the very schools which have benefited most in terms of roll increases, stability, and student turnover within the school year.
- Schools which lost students or found themselves competing with other local schools appeared to be as open to change and willingness to be responsive as others, if not more so. More than others, they had increased their school promotion and marketing (an additional budget cost). They had also endeavoured to meet family needs by providing after-school programmes. They were more likely to have made major changes to their performance management. Yet these efforts did not seem sufficient to reverse trends of decline or halt competition.

- Although primary rolls are set to start declining again in 2002, there already appears generally to be spare capacity in primary schools (but obviously not in some particular locations). Principals at schools with steady roll growth and those with rolls over 300 were least likely to want to increase their capacity. Schools with enrolment schemes were more likely to be those with very low or low Maori enrolment, and medium to high decile.
- It is likely that declining primary enrolments will confront many more schools with competition, roll instability, roll decline, and some hard decisions. The current regulatory review poses the options of clustering and amalgamation, with few schools yet showing great interest. Those that do, tend to be small, in rural areas. If the reforms so far have produced the unintended consequence of greater ethnic polarisation, what can be done to prevent this continuing in an even more competitive era, where less co-operation and collaboration is likely?

15 PARENTS AND SCHOOLS

In this chapter, information is provided about parents' contact with their child's school, the information they have about the school and their child's progress, their satisfaction with the child's schooling, and their choice of the current school and the next school for their child.

Fifty-nine percent of the parents had one child at the school asked about, 31 percent, two children, and 10 percent, three or more children. Most parents who responded had had a child at the school we asked about for two or more years (72 percent).

Forty-four percent had children[20] who were in single-year classes, 43 percent in two-year classes, and 6 percent in classes that had children from all school levels. Most new entrants and year 7 and 8 children were in classes which contained children at that year level only (69 percent and 65 percent respectively). Seventy percent of year 4–6 students and 48 percent of year 1–3 students were in composite classes, containing two year levels.

Parental Contact With the School

Parental Contact With Their Child's Teacher

Parental contact with primary schools was high before decentralisation. It has not increased since, and, from the parental perspective, shows some decline in the aspects of parent help in classrooms, informal talk at functions or trips, and seeing teachers round the community. These aspects may reflect the busier lives of parents—and teachers (*see* chapter 11)—particularly if parents are engaged in paid employment.

It is intriguing in this year's survey to see a decline in the proportion of parents who had talked to teachers about their child's written report. This may be due to the fact that this year's survey took place a few months earlier than the previous NZCER surveys (and may therefore provide an indication of how many parents receive a written report on their child's progress more than once a year).

---

20 We asked parents to answer in terms of their youngest child at the school.

Table 88

Parents' Contact With Child's Teacher

Area	1990 % (n=645)	1993 % (n=634)	1996 % (n=676)	1999 % (n=897)
Talk about child's work	81	72	72	72
Talk about child's written report	75	81	78	59
Greetings when parent takes child to school	64	62	64	59
Talk about child's behaviour[a]	-	-	-	45
Informal talk on school trips	48	46	38	39
Discussion about class programme/curriculum	-	35	33	32
Informal talk at school functions	51	49	41	26
At class meetings	-	-	17	21
Parent sees teacher around community	28	35	20	18
At school meetings	-	-	24	17
Talk about school policy	17	18	11	12
Parent helps in classroom	21	19	16	11
Playground/crossing/transport duty	-	-	14	11
No contact	1	2	2	4
Parent works at school[a]	-	-	-	4

n = new question in 1999 survey.

Mothers were more likely than fathers to talk to their child's teacher about the child's work, discuss the class programme with them, or talk to the teacher while helping in the classroom or with playground/crossing/transport duty.

Pakeha/European parents tended more than those from other ethnic groups to talk with the teacher about their child's work, discuss the class programme, or help in the classroom. Homemakers also talked with teachers more about the class programme, or helped in the classroom. Unemployed parents or those receiving state benefits were most likely to have no contact at all with their child's teacher (22 percent). Ten percent of parents who had no education qualification themselves did not have contact with their child's teacher.

The main school characteristics associated with different patterns of parental involvement were school size and location. Parental contact with children's teachers was highest in schools with rolls under 100 in terms of informal discussions, talking about school policy, discussing the class programme, helping in the child's classroom, or talking at school meetings. Parents at the largest schools (rolls of 400 or more) were most likely to take part in class meetings, but least likely to discuss their child's behaviour with their teacher.

City school parents were less likely to talk about school policy with their child's teacher, help in their child's classroom, or see the teacher round the community. Rural school parents were most likely to talk informally to their child's teacher at school functions, and talk to them at school meetings. Parents at provincial city and small town schools were most likely to have discussed their child's written report with the teacher.

Parents of decile 1–2 or high-Maori-enrolment schools were most likely to have no contact with their child's teacher (12 percent compared with 2 percent for parents at other schools). Parents of decile 9–10 schools were somewhat more likely to have contact with the teacher at school meetings. Parents at very low-Maori-enrolment schools were most likely to exchange greetings when they took their child to school (74 percent), and to have contact when they helped in their child's classroom (15 percent).

Parental Discussions of Their Child's Report With the Teacher

Almost without exception, New Zealand primary schools provide parents with written reports on their child's progress, and invite them to discuss them with the child's main teacher. Data from the principals showed that at least three-quarters of their school's parents discussed their child's report with the child's teacher in 61 percent of the schools. Fourteen percent had between 51 and 74 percent of the school's parents taking part in these discussions, and 6 percent, between 26 and 50 percent.

Parental attendance for such discussions was low in 16 percent of schools, with 9 percent having fewer than 10 percent of their parents taking part, and 7 percent, between 11 and 25 percent. Decile 1–2 schools were less likely to get three-quarters or more of their parents engaged in discussions of children's reports with teachers, (38 percent), compared with 51 percent of decile 3–4 schools and 72 percent of decile 5–10 schools. Only 39 percent of high-Maori-enrolment schools had such a level of parental participation in these discussions with teachers.

Do Parents Have Enough Contact With Their Child's Teacher?

Seventy-three percent of the parents responding thought they had enough contact with their child's teacher, 18 percent did not, and 7 percent were unsure; much the same as in previous NZCER surveys. Thirteen percent of the parents commented that their child's teacher was available if they needed to speak to the teacher, and 5 percent that they were too busy or not available themselves to talk to the teacher. Four percent said in relation to their contact with their child's teacher that they would like more information on their child's progress. One percent felt the teacher got annoyed if parents sought to make contact.

Pakeha/European parents were more likely to be satisfied with the contact they had with their child's teacher. Parents at schools with rolls below 100 were least likely to think they did not have enough contact with their child's teacher (6 percent).

Feeling that there is enough contact with one's child's teacher was important. Parents who felt they did not have enough contact with their child's teacher were also more likely to:

- have concerns they would feel uncomfortable raising with their child's teacher (29 percent compared with 3 percent of parents who felt they had enough contact with their child's teacher)
- feel they did not have enough contact with the school's principal (34 percent compared with 8 percent of parents who felt they had enough contact with their child's teacher)

- feel they did not have enough contact with the school's board of trustees (74 percent compared with 23 percent of parents who felt they had enough contact with their child's teacher)
- describe the information they got about their child's classroom programme as poor (30 percent compared with 5 percent of parents who felt they had enough contact with their child's teacher)
- describe the information they got about their child's learning progress as poor (21 percent compared with 3 percent of parents who felt they had enough contact with their child's teacher).

Nine percent of the parents had a concern they would feel uncomfortable raising with their child's teacher, a similar proportion to previous NZCER surveys. These concerns focused on their child's progress or wellbeing, the teacher's style of teaching or its quality, other children's poor behaviour or bullying, and the content of the curriculum. A few felt unable to raise concerns because previous efforts to do so had been unsuccessful. Maori parents were more likely to have a concern they would feel uncomfortable raising with their child's teacher (15 percent compared with 8 percent of Pakeha/European parents).

Parental Contact With the Principal

Parental contact with principals has remained even more consistent over time, but with some declines evident in the proportion of parents who talk to their school principal about school policy, curriculum, or their child's written report.

Table 89

Parents' Contact with School Principal

Contact	1990 % (n=645)	1993 % (n=634)	1996 % (n=676)	1999 % (n=897)
Greetings when parent takes child to school	60	53	59	56
Informal talk at school functions	45	42	36	31
Talk about child	37	36	28	27
No contact	17	17	19	23
At school meeting	-	-	25	22
See at sports events	-	-	25	20
See around community	-	27	21	19
Informal talk on school trips	20	20	16	15
Talk about school policy	22	23	13	13
Talk about class programme/curriculum	-	17	12	12
Talk about child's written report	13	16	15	9
Principal is child's teacher	-	-	10	5
At whanau meetings	-	-	2	2

Unlike patterns of contact with the child's teacher, mothers and fathers had much the same kind of contact with the school principal, although mothers were more likely to talk informally with the principal on school trips. There were no differences in parent contact with the school principal related to parental occupation or ethnicity, but parents with no qualification were most likely to have no contact—30 percent.

Contact with the school's principal was related most to school roll size, with those in the schools with rolls of under 100 having most contact—not surprising given that the principal was also the child's teacher for 48 percent of these parents—and those in the largest schools, least contact. Thirty-five percent of the parents in the largest schools had had no contact in 1999 with their school's principal, decreasing to 4 percent of those in schools with rolls of under 100.

Rural school parents generally had more contact with their school's principal—not surprising when for 36 percent of them the principal was also the child's teacher. City school parents were less likely to talk about policy or the class programme with school's principal, or see the principal at sports events. Twenty-seven percent of the city school parents had had no contact with their school's principal this year, compared with 13 percent of parents in provincial city or small-town schools, and 6 percent of parents in rural schools.

Parents at low-Maori-enrolment schools were most likely to exchange greetings with their school's principal when they took their child to school (74 percent), and were least likely to have had no contact with their school's principal (13 percent compared with 31 percent for others).

Do Parents Have Enough Contact With Their School's Principal?

Seventy-one percent of the parents felt they had enough contact with the school principal, 13 percent were unsure, and only 14 percent did not think they had enough contact. Parents who were unemployed or received state benefits were more likely to feel they did not have enough contact with their school's principal (31 percent).

Though Pakeha/European parents had much the same pattern of contact with their school principal as others, they were more satisfied with their contact (77 percent compared with 56 percent of others).

Twenty-two percent of decile 1-2 school parents and 21 percent of those attending high-Maori-enrolment schools (overlapping categories) did not think they had enough contact with their school's principal.

Only 6 percent of the parents at schools with rolls of under 100 thought they did not enough contact with their school's principal, compared with 15 percent of those in larger schools.

Parental desire for more contact with their school's principal was also an indicator of a desire for more information about their child and the school:

- a desire for more information about their child's progress (39 percent compared with 13 percent of those who were satisfied with their contact with their school's principal),
- a view that the information they received about the board's policy making was poor (25 percent compared with 3 percent of those who were satisfied with their contact with their school's principal), and

- a view that the information they received about the board's decisions was poor (23 percent compared with 6 percent of those who were satisfied with their contact with their school's principal).

Parental Contact with the Board of Trustees

Almost half the parents had had no contact with their school's board of trustees. The amount of contact that parents have with their school boards, whether directly or indirectly, has decreased over time.

Table 90

Parents' Contact with School's Board of Trustees

Contact	1990 % (n=645)	1993 % (n=634)	1996 % (n=676)	1999 % (n=897)
No contact	33	36	40	49
Received board's newsletter/reports	53	52	46	35
Answered school survey[n]	–	–	–	25
Took part in working bees/fundraising with trustees	32	30	24	16
Saw minutes of board meetings	20	27	18	14
Talked with individual trustee about school policy	23	28	19	13
Saw agenda for board meetings	18	20	11	12
Attended board meeting	16	16	7	7
Talked with individual trustee about my child	–	12	8	6
Took part in development of school policy	16	12	4	4
Discussed ERO report	–	–	4	4
Took part in curriculum development	–	9	3	3

n=new question in 1999 survey.

Mothers were more likely than fathers to see agendas and minutes of board meetings. Maori and Asian parents were somewhat less likely to have had any contact with the school's board than Pacific Island or Pakeha/European parents. Again, parents who had no qualifications themselves were most likely to have no contact with their school's board: 60 percent.

School size and location were related to parents' contact with their school's board. Only 18 percent of the parents in schools with rolls of under 100 had had no contact in 1999 with their board. As school size rose, contact between parents and trustees fell, for all kinds of contact asked about other than parents taking part in curriculum development with trustees.

Only 28 percent of rural school parents had no contact with their school's board. Particular types of contact were generally lower for city school parents compared with parents at rural and provincial city and small-town schools. Rural school parents were most likely to take part in working bees or fundraising events with trustees (46 percent), and to see the minutes or agenda for board meetings. Those at schools in provincial cities or small towns were less likely to receive board newsletters or reports (19 percent).

Parents at decile 1–2 schools were less likely to take part in working bees or fundraising with their school's board (9 percent), or receive board newsletters or reports (19 percent). Sixty-one percent of decile 1–2 school parents had no contact with their board. Parents at very low-Maori-enrolment schools were most likely to take part in working bees or fundraising with their board (22 percent). Lack of any contact with the school board rose from 40 percent of parents in very low-Maori-enrolment schools to 59 percent of those in high-Maori-enrolment schools.

Do Parents Feel They Have Enough Contact With Their School's Board Of Trustees?

Forty-four percent of parents felt they had enough contact with their school's board of trustees, much as in previous years. Thirty-one percent did not, and 22 percent were unsure. Parents at schools with rolls of under 100 (75 percent) and rural school parents (61 percent) were happiest with their contact with their school's board.

Pakeha/European parents were most likely to feel satisfied with their contact with their board (49 percent compared with 33 percent of others). Parents who were unemployed or receiving state benefits were less satisfied with their contact with the board than others (25 percent).

Parents who did not feel they had enough contact with their school's trustees were more likely to feel they did not know how the school's board of trustees was doing (57 percent compared with 30 percent of those who felt satisfied that they had enough contact with their school's trustees), or what was happening in terms of the school's policy development (40 percent compared with 14 percent of those who felt satisfied that they had enough contact with their school's trustees).

Twenty-seven percent of those who felt they did not have enough contact with their school's board also wanted more information about the school, and 19 percent of this group felt there was an area of school life where they would like to have a say. However, there was no link between seeking more contact with trustees, and wanting to make changes in their child's education.

Trustees' Perspectives on Their Contact With Parents

The patterns of trustees' contacts with parents have remained much the same since the beginning of decentralisation. Most contact with parents is with individuals, rather than groups, and concerns policy somewhat more than individual children.

Table 91

Trustees' Contact With Parents at Their School

Contact	1989 % (n = 334)	1993 % (n = 292)	1996 % (n = 270)	1999 % (n = 376)
Informal discussion with parents who are friends	93	83	77	76
Parents come to board meetings	42	58	51	53
Trustee helps/works at the school	–	–	51	53
Individual parents contact trustee on school policy	55	58	49	44
Trustee contacts individual parents known to trustee to seek their views	53	47	36	41
Talk with individual parents unknown to trustee at school function	51	58	40	39
Individual parents contact trustee concerning their Children	25	43	32	34
Trustee attends meetings of PTA/home and school association/school council	36	33	33	31
Trustee contacts unknown individual parents	22	22	18	18
Trustee works with parents to develop school policy	–	26	17	13
Groups of parents contact trustee on matters of school Policy	11	20	14	11
Trustee attends whanau meetings[a]	–	–	–	6
No direct contact with parents	3	3	3	3

n = new question in 1999 survey.

Most trustees had at least three different kinds of contact with parents (76 percent). Trustees at schools with rolls of under 100 were less likely to have individual parents contacting them about school policy (34 percent compared with 51 percent of trustees at larger schools), and less likely to attend PTA meetings (24 percent compared with 36 percent). Trustees whose schools were in provincial cities were more likely to contact individual parents they had not met before (36 percent). Fewer trustees at secondary urban schools helped at their school or worked there (27 percent). All trustees who attended whanau meetings were at state schools, and most were in high-Maori-enrolment schools. Attendance of PTA meetings was more likely in low- and very low-Maori-enrolment schools, perhaps indicating that separate fundraising bodies were more likely in these schools. Trustees in decile 9–10 schools were more likely to work with parents to develop school policies (24 percent compared with 9 percent), and to have informal discussions with parents who were also friends (84 percent).

Seventy-eight percent of the trustees were satisfied with the level of contact they had with parents. Rural trustees were more satisfied than others.

Parents' Access to Information

Although ERO and the Ministry of Education have suggested that parents are not getting sufficient information from schools, few parents felt the information they received from the school about their child or the school was poor, although just over half described it as good rather than fair.

Table 92

Parental Views on Their Access to Information

Subject (n=897)	Good %	Fair %	Poor %	Info. available if wanted %	Not sure %
Child's progress	56	33	7	–	–
Child's classroom programme	53	32	10	–	–
BoT discussion and policy making	20	21	11	39	12
BoT decisions	19	16	12	36	16

Maori parents were less likely to feel they were getting good information about their child's programme (44 percent). Parents in professional occupations were more likely to describe the information they got about the child's classroom programme as poor (18 percent). Those with university degrees were less likely to describe this information as good (38 percent, compared with 63 percent of those with no qualifications).

Parents at schools with rolls of under 100 were generally happiest with the information they had about the operations of their school's board.

Do Parents Want More Information About Their Child's School?

Seventy-four percent of the parents did not want any more information about the school, 10 percent were unsure, and 13 percent would like additional information, mainly about school planning and board decisions, the curriculum, the school's use of funds, or information in general. Those who wanted more information about the school were also more interested in having more information about their child's progress (49 percent compared with 11 percent of those who thought they had enough information about their school).

Parental interest in having more information was related to their own education: ranging from 22 percent of those with university degrees, or an incomplete qualification, to 6 percent of those with no qualification.

Do Parents Want More Information About Their Child's School Progress?

Seventy-six percent of the parents were happy with the information they currently received about their child's progress. Eighteen percent of the parents would like more information, and 4 percent were unsure. Maori and Asian parents were more likely to want more information than they

currently received (27 and 30 percent respectively). Parents with no qualification were less interested than others in having more information about their child's progress (11 percent).

The main themes among those who would like more information were a desire for more detailed information, for more regular reports, and comparisons with national standards (5-6 percent each).

Parental Satisfaction With the Quality of Their Child's Schooling

Eighty-four percent of parents were generally happy with the quality of their child's schooling, 7 percent were unsure, and only 8 percent were not—a picture which has remained consistent throughout the NZCER surveys. The main reasons for being satisfied were the child's progress and standard of work, their enjoyment of learning, the positive atmosphere at the school, and the quality of the teaching. Also mentioned were receiving individual attention, or class sizes which allow this, and the curriculum.

Parents who were not satisfied about their child's schooling were concerned that they were not receiving individual attention, felt the school climate was poor, and felt their child was not making adequate progress or getting good-quality teaching.

Parents who were not happy about the quality of their child's schooling—

- felt their child's class was too big (53 percent of those who were unhappy about the quality of their child's schooling)
- felt they did not have enough contact with the child's teacher, the school principal, or the board of trustees (40 percent, 29 percent and 59 percent respectively)
- had matters they would like to raise with their child's teacher but would feel uncomfortable doing so (26 percent)
- felt that the information they got on their child's classroom programme was poor (41 percent, with only 16 percent of this group finding it good)
- felt that the information they got on their child's progress was poor (24 percent, with only 18 percent of this group finding it good)
- wanted more information about their child's progress (37 percent)
- felt the information they got on board policy making and decisions was poor (31 percent and 26 percent respectively)
- wanted more information about the school (22 percent)
- felt excluded from having a say in some area of the school's work (43 percent)
- were just as involved as other parents in the school, but more likely to feel they did not know what was happening in terms of policy development (43 percent)
- felt the board of trustees was coping or struggling (23 percent)
- wanted to change something about their child's education (71 percent)
- were not at the school of their first choice (40 percent).

These findings are consistent with the 1996 NZCER survey findings except that Maori parents surveyed in 1999 were just as likely to be satisfied as others.

These national surveys do find that parental views of the quality of education are affected by whether they have accessed the school of their choice, unlike the findings of two other surveys in specific locations, Palmerston North (Wylie & Chalmers, 1999), and Christchurch (Stockwell & Duckworth, 1998). In addition, the present survey found that while most of those who would like to change something about their school were at the school of their first choice, 23 percent were not, double the rate for those who did not seek change.

Twenty-eight percent of parents would like to change something about their child's education, with another 8 percent unsure. This is much the same as in 1996. The main changes mentioned were smaller classes, more challenging work, more emphasis on academic work, and more individual help for children. Others included single-level classes, more communication about the child's progress, reducing the number of children at the school with behavioural or health problems, having more Maori language, more work with computers, more sports, more emphasis on values, more teaching resources, more accountability for children's learning, and more information for parents to use to support their children's learning at home.

Interest in making a change was linked to parents' own education, ranging from 43 percent of those with university degrees to 18 percent of those with no qualification.

Do Parents Want More Say In Their Child's School?

Only 11 percent of parents felt there was some area of school life where they would like to have a say and felt they did not, with another 6 percent unsure. These areas ranged widely, and included the curriculum, school policies affecting students, children's behaviour, allocation of funding, and children's assignment to particular teachers or classes.

Parents who felt excluded from an area of school life were much more likely to also want more information about the school (43 percent compared with 8 percent of others).

Parental Choice of School

As described in the previous chapter, there has been an increase in the proportion of principals who thought that changes in their rolls reflected parent and child preferences. Anecdotal material from principals also indicates that parents are taking more interest in selecting a school for their child. A Palmerston North study of school choice found that around half of the primary and intermediate school parents and three-quarters of the secondary school parents considered more than one school in making their choice (Wylie & Chalmers, 1999, p. 29), although many parents continue to look beyond a neighbourhood or familiar school only if they are dissatisfied, or hear favourable reports of another.

Sixty-seven percent of the principals noted an increase in prospective parents visiting their school over the last three years. Twenty-nine percent thought there had been an increase in the number of parents asking to see the school's ERO review reports. These figures are much the same as in the 1996 NZCER survey. Forty percent of the principals thought there had also been an increase in prospective parents seeking material about the school, other than ERO review reports. Principals of the smallest schools were least likely to report prospective parents visiting

the school, and like their colleagues in schools with rolls of 35 to 99, less likely to report people asking to see ERO reports on the school, or asking to see other material about the school.

Eighty-three percent of parents said their child was at their first choice of school. This is consistent with the figures from the Palmerston North and Christchurch school choice studies. Those who were not at the school of their first choice were more likely to:

- be Maori (26 percent compared with 14 percent of Pakeha/European)
- come from homes where parents were unemployed or received state benefits (34 percent compared with 13 percent of those from professional homes)
- come from high-Maori-enrolment schools (26 percent compared with 13 percent of very low- to moderate-Maori-enrolment schools)
- come from schools in provincial cities or small towns (29 percent compared with 15 percent of city parents, and 16 percent of rural parents)
- come from decile 1–4 schools (27 percent compared with 12 percent of decile 5–10 schools).

Those who had not been able to access the school of their first choice gave three main reasons: transport, cost, and the school enrolment scheme. Transport was the major obstacle for parents wishing to choose a different school in provincial cities and small towns. This may indicate either a lack of public transport, difficulty in affording private transport, or a shortage of options for schooling.

Sixty-two percent of the parents had decided which school they would like their child to attend next, with a further 13 percent undecided, much as in 1996. Parents with university qualifications were less likely to have made a decision, and be slightly more likely to be looking at several schools. There were no differences related to ethnicity.

Somewhat more than half the parents who had made a decision on their child's school (58 percent) could see no obstacle to their child being able to attend the desired school. The main obstacles seen by others were school enrolment schemes, money, and transport. Maori and Pacific Island parents were most likely to mention money as an obstacle; and Pacific Island parents, least likely to feel that they faced no obstacle in accessing the school of their choice. Unemployed parents were most likely to mention money as an obstacle, and were less likely to feel that they could access the school of their choice.

City school parents were more likely to mention enrolment schemes as an obstacle to their child being able to attend the school of their choice, and rural school parents, transport.

Forty-two percent of parents said they were putting some money aside for their child's future education, much as in 1996. Parents with professional occupations were most likely to be putting some money aside (55 percent). Those with tertiary education or sixth form certificate were more likely to be putting some money aside. There were no differences related to ethnicity.

Summary

- Parental contact with school professionals and trustees has declined slightly over the decade, although satisfaction levels with the amount of contact remain much the same. Pakeha/European parents were more likely to have contact, especially in talking about class programmes and children's progress, and to be more satisfied with their level of contact with people at the school.
- Unemployed parents and those receiving state benefits had less contact with people at their child's school, and would like more. Interestingly, parental educational levels were not related to contact patterns with people at the school. These patterns have remained consistent throughout the reforms, indicating that schools as a whole have been able to make little progress in finding ways to make schools even more inclusive than they were before the reforms. This may tell us something about the difficulty of doing so with high workloads for principals and teachers (tacitly acknowledged in the additional funding given to some schools in low-income areas to employ community liaison people, and the recent introduction of school social workers).
- Parents who are not satisfied with their level of contact with school staff and the board of trustees usually want more information about their child and the school; sometimes they also wanted more of a say in their child's school.
- Few parents (11 percent) wanted more of a say in their child's school, with rather more (28 percent) wanting to change something about the school, such as class size, more individual help for children, or more challenging or more academic work. Well-educated parents are more likely to want change, or more information about the school.
- Most parents were satisfied with the quality of their child's education (84 percent, much the same since 1989). Unlike the findings in previous surveys, the current survey found that Maori parents were just as likely to be satisfied as others, which may indicate a positive change (which could be confirmed by subsequent surveys). However, more Maori parents than Pakeha/European continued to feel that they had not been able to access the school of their first choice. Parents who had not been able to do so were less satisfied with the quality of their child's education, and more likely to want to change something at the school. However, most parents continue to access the school of their first choice (83 percent).
- Few parents felt that the information they received about their child's class programme, or their progress, was poor, although around a third described it as fair rather than good. However, 76 percent of parents were happy with the information they currently received about their child's school progress. Maori and Asian parents would like more information: more detail, more regular reports, or a comparison with national standards.

16 SCHOOLS AND GOVERNMENT

Underlying Tensions

One recurring theme in these surveys of the impact of decentralisation is the growing distance between schools and the central government education agencies. At one level, this may seem to some the whole point of decentralisation. But for people in schools it seems to have created disappointment and frustration that while a key principle of the reforms was the value of having decisions made by those most affected by them, their representatives have been excluded from much of the policy development that flowed from the initial framework, or consulted only after the fact. Sector opposition to some policy development, such as bulk funding or national mandatory assessment at set ages has been strong. This opposition, and the concerns and reservations underlying it, has not been ignored, but neither has it deterred politicians and policy makers from pursuing their original objectives.

It was never the original intention of the reforms to set schools entirely free to spend public money as they wished. (Lange 1999). Yet trying to clarify the relationship between schools and government which should exist in a system of self-managing schools is not easy, particularly when schools were asked to be responsive and accountable to their community, as well as to government. While the Ministry of Education and ERO are each responsible for seeing progress on government-funded education outcomes, they do not directly control schools. The decade has therefore seen a variety of government approaches to getting schools to do what the government would like them to do.

The last few years have seen greater consultation of schools, and welcome growth in the provision of more support for professional development and the provision of curriculum and assessment resources, and for some schools, albeit targeted and often limited in time. Steps have also been taken to provide a more coherent approach to social disadvantage, which hinders learning (although these steps may do little to tackle the root causes of the growing inequality in New Zealand society since economic policy direction has remained unchanged).

But, just as teachers responded to the accountability-driven demand for more evidence of student achievement by "adding-on" assessment methods rather than consolidating or integrating, so these steps toward a new relationship between schools and the Ministry of Education have been grafted onto funding and governance arrangements which focus on school self-management alone. This has created policies which sometimes seem to be heading in opposite directions.

Similar tensions are also evident in recent ERO annual reports: realisations that schools are not all well suited for the public sector reform model, and that some aspects of education provision, such as teacher supply, are beyond the ability of individual schools to improve, coupled with a determination to find ways to get them to better fit the reform model, through, for example, benchmarking of national assessment results in similar schools. [21]

---

[21] It may be no more than unfortunate coincidence that not long after ERO published its own recommendations for assessment in 1998, using a model of benchmarking using average scores which observers noted would produce invalid results in small schools, it published a report on small schools which was largely critical of their governance and educational provision.

This chapter describes whom people at schools feel responsible to, their judgment of their dealings with the Ministry of Education, and its relationship with the education sector, their experience and use of ERO reviews (few principals, teachers or trustees appear to use ERO national education reports for advice—*see* chapter 6), and their experience of the changes to special education policy, SE 2000. It then looks at expectations of the regulatory review, the changes people in schools would like to see happen in education, and their ranking of education issues in terms of their priority for government attention.

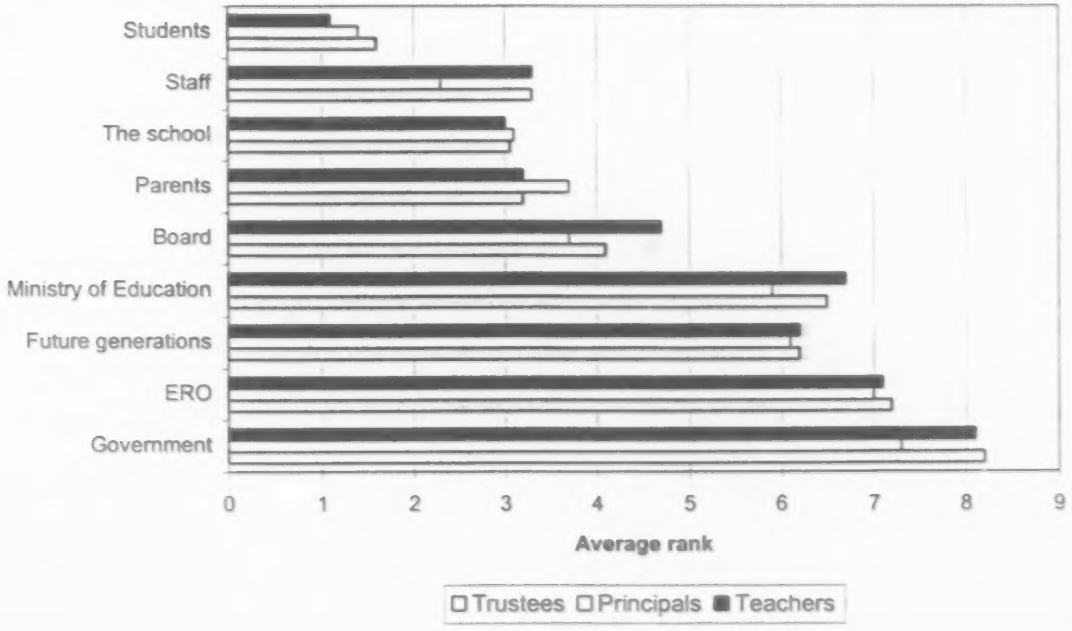
To Whom Do People in Schools Feel Responsible?

It is the nature of schools to serve a diverse set of ends, and to have multiple responsibilities. In 1996, principals', teachers', and trustees' rankings of the people or agencies they felt responsibility to were remarkably similar. Students headed the list; government and government agencies were at the bottom. Principals tended to feel more responsibility toward school staff than did trustees, and both felt more responsibility to the board of trustees than teachers did. Principals also felt slightly more responsible to the Ministry of Education than did either trustees or teachers.

In 1999, many of the rankings remain the same, but with some interesting changes. School staff are slightly ahead of the school itself, but principals rate their responsibility to staff somewhat lower than do trustees and teachers. Perhaps this fits with the growing distance between principals and teachers that was described in chapters 6 and 10). Teachers now rate their responsibility to the school board of trustees, the Ministry of Education, and the government somewhat more highly than do principals. The figure below shows the average rank for each of nine groups with an interest in school performance. The highest ranking is 1, the lowest, 9.

Figure 14

Trustees', Principals' and Teachers' Average Rankings of Their Responsibility



Relations With the Ministry of Education

Principals had better relations with their regional office of the Ministry of Education than with the national office. Relations with regional offices had also improved since 1996, with 67 percent of principals describing them as good or better, compared with 51 percent in 1996. Ten percent of principals noted problems with their regional office, mostly minor.

Relations between schools and the national office of the Ministry of Education have remained much the same since 1991. Just under half the principals described their relations with the national office of the Ministry of Education as good or better, and 12 percent noted problems in the relationship, mostly minor.

The incidence of problems in school relationships with both Ministry of Education levels was somewhat lower than in 1996. Thus few schools seem to find the Ministry of Education a source of great difficulty.

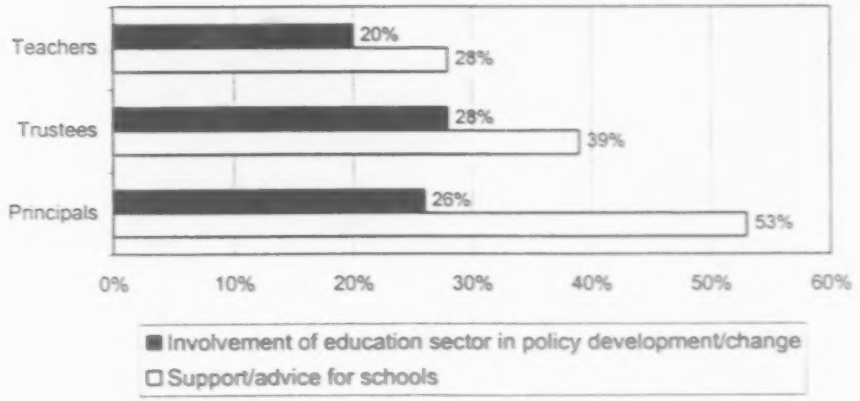
Thirty-nine percent of principals said they always met government agency deadlines, or met most of them, much the same as in 1996. Sixteen percent would meet these deadlines if they thought it was important for their school, and 8 percent if they had time. These answers are much the same as in 1996, and show a greater ability to meet government agency deadlines than in 1993.

Satisfaction With the Ministry of Education

Teachers are least satisfied with the Ministry of Education provision of support or advice for schools, and principals, most satisfied. This may reflect the different kinds of support that principals and teachers sought: management-related for principals, and curriculum- and assessment-related for teachers. However, the two groups are closer in their views about the Ministry of Education's involvement of the education sector in policy development or change. Just under a quarter of teachers, principals, or trustees combined were satisfied with this.

Figure 15

Satisfaction With Ministry of Education



Teachers were more satisfied (34 percent) with the Ministry of Education's level of involvement of them in curriculum development. Twenty-one percent of teachers were also satisfied with the level of the Ministry of Education's provision of teaching resources.

Dissatisfaction with the current level of Ministry of Education support or advice for schools was largely unrelated to school or personal characteristics. It was higher for:

- principals who thought their staffing entitlement was insufficient (58 percent compared with 42 percent)
- principals who thought their school funding could not meet their school's needs (97 percent compared with 76 percent of those who were satisfied with their school's funding)
- principals who wanted to make some curriculum or programme innovation in their school but had not been able to (39 percent compared with 20 percent of others); but not for those who had wanted to make some personnel/operational change
- trustees who thought their school's funding was inadequate (30 percent compared with 13 percent of those who thought their school's funding was adequate),
- teachers at centrally funded schools (33 percent compared with 20 percent of teachers at fully funded schools).

Dissatisfaction with the current level of Ministry of Education involvement of the education sector in policy development was higher for:

- principals who wanted to make some curriculum or programme innovation in their school but had not been able to (52 percent compared with 31 percent of others)
- trustees who thought their school's government funding was inadequate (26 percent compared with 14 percent of those who thought it adequate)
- principals who wanted to make some operational or personnel change in their school but had not been able to (56 percent compared with 34 percent of others), although these principals were no more likely to describe government regulations as an obstacle than others.

Interestingly, the survey was done at the time that the review of regulations had been publicised through education sector groups and media, and opinions sought. This may indicate that this approach is not seen as sufficiently consultative or involving of the sector, even for those with issues related to the subject of the review.

Schools' Actions To Improve Government Funding or Staffing

Principals who wanted to make some operational or personnel innovation but felt they could not do so were more likely to be dissatisfied with the present level of Ministry of Education involvement of the education sector in policy development or change (56 percent compared with 34 percent).

Only 20 percent of the principals felt no need to take action to get satisfactory answers on their school's funding and staffing resourcing from the Ministry of Education. This is comparable with 1996 survey figures, and slightly less than the 27 percent in 1993. State-integrated schools were less

likely to feel the need to take action (42 percent), possibly because they are responsible for their own capital works. Principals of very low-Maori-enrolment schools also felt less need to take action (26 percent felt they did not need to take action compared with 13 percent of principals of high-Maori-enrolment schools). The table below shows that there was more negotiation with the national office of the Ministry of Education than in 1996, and fewer discussions between schools and local members of parliament.

Principals whose schools had taken their Ministry of Education resourcing issues to the media were more likely to say that their experience of the central office of the Ministry of Education had problems (43 percent).

Those who turned to their local MP or someone in a position of national influence over their resourcing were more likely to want to make some operational or personnel change in their school that they could not (57 percent), which may indicate that the views MPs and people in national positions hear are not always representative of schools as a whole.

Table 93

Steps Taken by Schools To Get Satisfactory Answers From the Ministry of Education on Funding, Property, and Staffing

Action ↓	1996 %	1999 %
Principal negotiated with local Ministry staff	64	69
Principal negotiated directly with national Ministry staff	25	37
Principal and/or trustees discussions with district committee (allocation of funding for capital works)	25	30
Felt no need to take action	19	20
Principal and/or trustees discussions with local MP	24	14
Principal and/or trustees discussions with people in positions of national influence	9	7
Principal and/or trustees described school situation to media	8	5

Principals of the smallest schools were most likely to feel no need to take action to get satisfactory answers on their funding and staffing (45 percent). They were also less likely to negotiate with the local or national Ministry of Education officers. Principals of rural schools also undertook less negotiation directly with the national Ministry of Education office.

Education Review Office

Ninety percent of the schools in this survey had been reviewed by the Education Review Office (ERO) in the last three years. Most principals found some value in being reviewed.

Of those schools which had been reviewed, 56 percent of the principals described the overall impact on their school of their last ERO review as helpful, and 21 percent, very helpful. ERO reviews of their school were reported as unhelpful to 11 percent of schools, and had no impact for 12 percent. These figures show a slight improvement on the overall picture in 1996 of the usefulness of ERO reviews. This may reflect the fact that most schools now have in place systems and paperwork which are used in ERO reviews, and that the proportions of boards which were

meeting their legal requirements satisfactorily appears to have risen from 48 percent in 1996 to two-thirds in 1998 (Minister of Education, 1997, p. 49; Minister of Education, 1999, p. 63). Unfortunately, principals were not asked *how* they found the ERO reviews helpful, whether, for example, to enable them to comply with ERO expectations, or to make positive changes to school programmes and children's learning.

Seventy-five percent of teachers in schools which had been reviewed by ERO in the last three years had seen their school's report. Their views of the usefulness to their school of the ERO reports were much the same as principals'.

Principals of schools in small towns and provincial cities were more likely to find the ERO reviews very helpful, although they were no more likely than others to make major changes as a result.

Just over half the principals who found their ERO review unhelpful also felt they did not have satisfactory access to useful advice about ERO reviews.

Most of the schools which were reviewed made minor changes as a result (72 percent), and 13 percent made major changes. Most of those who made major changes made them in at least three areas of school work, particularly assessment, curriculum, and performance management. They were also more likely to have made changes to discipline and personnel policies.

Assessment and curriculum were the main areas where schools made changes after their ERO reviews, reflecting their emphasis in the recent ERO review process. ERO has been particularly keen to see more use of assessment to report to parents, and to identify groups of students needing more support, and in school development. Schools were more likely to have made changes to their curriculum as a result of their ERO review, than they had in 1996.

Table 94

Areas of School Change After ERO Reviews

Change	1996 (n=181) %	1999 (n=236) %
Assessment	37	47
Curriculum	28	47
Health and safety	36	28
Personnel policy	13	10
Equal opportunities	7	2
Performance management	-	16
Discipline	1	4

Media coverage of school ERO reviews more than doubled from 1996 (22 percent) to 1999 (54 percent). Anecdotal reports from community newspaper editors and principals suggest that schools may be taking the initiative themselves to ensure publicity for good reports, and it is interesting to see schools paying for advertisements to report good ERO reviews, as well as using quotations from ERO reviews in their "recruitment" advertising.

Sixty-seven percent of the principals whose last ERO review got media coverage thought it had had a positive impact on their school, with 13 percent noting a negative impact for their school. Principals who found their school's ERO review unhelpful were no more likely than those who found it helpful to record negative impacts for their school from media coverage of the ERO review.

ERO reviews now also include a community summary page, which outlines the major conclusions of the review for schools to distribute to their parents. Most principals of those schools which had such a summary in their last ERO review found that these had a positive impact for the school (61 percent), or no impact (34 percent). Only 5 percent had found that ERO community summary pages had had a negative impact for the school.

On the whole, then, schools appear to take notice of ERO reviews, and make changes which generally, but not always, reflect national emphases.

Schools' Self-review

Only 1 percent of schools did not have a process of self-review, as required by National Administration Guideline four. Fourteen percent were still developing such a process, compared with 34 percent in 1996. Schools which had developed their self-review process were also more likely to have in place a school development plan (91 percent compared with 58 percent of those still developing their school's self-review process). The smallest schools were most likely to be still developing their own review process, or their school development or strategic plan.

In 1998, ERO found schools' self-reviews unsatisfactory in 40 percent of the schools it reviewed, mainly because they were not including all aspects of school work (Minister of Education, 1999, p. 63). However, school self-review was not one of the main aspects that schools actually changed as a result of their ERO review.

Special Education 2000

"SE 2000" is the umbrella name for a number of different policy initiatives aimed at improving educational provision for children with special needs by shifting funding related to particular students to a formula (per-student, weighted in relation to decile), the Special Education Grant (SEG), with an ongoing resourcing scheme (ORS) covering students identified as having high or very high levels of ongoing special needs. This funding transfers with students if they change schools. There has also been a shift away from funding units attached to schools and using the Specialist Education Services staff as "gatekeepers" for special education funding. Schools now have far more responsibility to decide how to support their students with special needs. Existing staffing provision for children with behaviour problems and special needs was augmented in 1998 to provide a new category, Resource Teachers of Learning and Behaviour. These resource teachers serve clusters of schools, but are employed by individual school boards of trustees.

This new approach to resourcing exemplifies the per-student, individual-institution approach to educational provision. It has been welcomed as supporting mainstreaming of students, and giving a greater focus to the education of special needs children, than to their disability (Mitchell, 1999, p. 205). But it has also raised questions of whether all schools are in fact providing

adequately for their children with special needs, and whether of government funding is sufficient to actually cover all children with ongoing needs (Mitchell, 1999; NZEI, 1999).

In mid 1999, half the principals had experienced problems with the SE 2000 policy. Twenty-four percent had had major problems with the new policy, and 26 percent, minor problems. These are described in the next table.Thirty percent described their experiences of the policy as satisfactory, 18 percent as good, and 2 percent as excellent or very good.

Teachers were less certain about the impact of the SE 2000 policy. Forty-two percent were unsure what they thought about their experiences to date, 25 percent noted problems (14 percent major, and 11 percent minor), 14 percent found the new policy satisfactory, 8 percent found it good, and 2 percent, excellent or very good.

The difference between teachers' and principals' experiences is likely to be due to the switch from providing resources for special needs children in terms of access to specialist or support services, to including funding in school operational grants (the SEG funding), or allocating it on the basis of applications made for individual children. These changes entail more administrative work for principals.

Even those of those who rated their experience with the SE 2000 policy as satisfactory were still likely to note difficulties with the level of government resourcing for the policy. While chapter 1 shows that more principals have at least 11 hours of special needs aide help each week in their school, but also that there has been an increase in those who think their school needs more special needs aide hours.

Table 95

Problems Experienced With the SE 2000 Policy (Mid-1999)

Problem	(n = 262) %
SEG funding does not cover all students with learning needs	61
SEG funding does not cover all students with behavioural needs	47
Insufficient funding allocated for students with moderate ongoing problems	39
Insufficient funding allocated for students with severe ongoing problems	32
Uncertainty over funding	21
Uncertainty over access to Resource Teachers for Learning and Behaviour (RTLBs)	16
Other problems	8

Experience of problems with the SE 2000 policy was highest in decile 1–2 schools (41 percent, falling to 23 percent in decile 9–10 schools). Principals of state schools were more likely to report problems with SE 2000 than those in state-integrated schools. Decile 9–10 schools were least likely to report that the SEG funding did not cover all students with behavioural needs (30 percent).

Use of the Specialist Education Services

The Specialist Education Services (SES) was one of the new education agencies to emerge from the reforms. It provides specialist support for schools, particularly for children with special needs, but has also moved into the dimensions of social skills, for example, school-wide approaches to cutting back the incidence of bullying. SES funding levels were heavily cut over the 1991–93 budgets, and

have not made ground since. SES is the main fund-holder for ORS students, but, since clusters of schools were also able to become fund-holders in 1999, it has lost students to these clusters since it needed to cover both specialist support and teacher aide time (most school fund-holders put the money into teacher aides only). This resulted in some teachers reporting no contact at all with SES, and fewer principals rating its service as excellent or very good.

Table 96

Principals' and Teachers' Views of Their Experiences of SES

Quality	Principals % 1999 (n = 262)	Teachers % 1999 (n = 396)
Excellent/very good	8*	9
Good	29	19
Satisfactory	27	29
Minor problems	17	15
Major problems	15	10
No contact yet	3	12*+

* = statistically significant change from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Views of SES's service were related to views of the SE 2000 policy, with those who had experienced problems with the policy being two or three times more likely than others to have problems with SES.

Dissatisfaction was stronger among state school teachers (27 percent reporting problems compared with 3 percent of state-integrated school teachers, although their experiences of the SE 2000 policy were similar. Teachers in very low- and low-Maori-enrolment schools were twice as likely as their colleagues in moderate- or high-Maori enrolment schools to have had no contact with SES, and less likely to report minor problems, although the incidence of major problems was much the same.

Views of the Regulatory Review

A review of education regulations was included by the New Zealand First party in the coalition agreement between the National party and the New Zealand First party which followed the 1996 general election. In September 1998, Ministry of Education officials launched this review with a paper given to the Schools Consultative Group, a cross-sector group. Much of this paper was reproduced in the STA newsletter which went to boards of trustees. It argued that while there was no need for radical change, there was a need for more flexibility in governance and funding arrangements. The evidence it provided was anecdotal.

When this survey was undertaken, in June-July 1999, few principals and trustees felt they knew what to expect from the government's review of regulations. There was some scepticism that the review would bring benefits to schools.

Overall, 16 percent of principals thought there would be no benefit, 13 percent were unsure, 8 percent expected compliance to be reduced for schools, 6 percent more local decision making, 3 percent more professional support, and 3 percent, a reduced workload.

The risks and costs identified were cost-cutting by government, a greater workload at schools, an over-reliance on boards of trustees, little educational value likely to result for students, and that a focus on regulation would take energy or attention from resourcing issues.

Twenty-eight percent of trustees did not know what benefits could come from the review, and 22 percent, what risks or costs it might have. Fourteen percent expected no benefit to come from the review. Between 1 and 2 percent expected less compliance, more professional support, more local decision making, and a reduction in current workload. In terms of any risks or costs, the main risk identified was that government would cut costs, followed by scepticism that the reforms would benefit students. A few also mentioned increases in workloads, energy or attention taken from resourcing issues, and an over-reliance on boards of trustees.

The Education Issues as People in Schools See Them

When asked what changes they would like to make to education in New Zealand, people in schools remain concerned with resourcing issues: class size, funding, workloads, and teacher quality. Parents interest in children's behaviour is also evident.

Table 97

Parents' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education

	1999 % (n=897)
Decrease class sizes	27
Improve funding/resources	22
Improve teachers' pay/working conditions	11
More discipline/stricter procedures at school	11
Back to basics	11
Improve teacher education/quality	9
More support for special needs children	7
Ensure good-quality education for all	5
More support for underachieving students	5
Improvements in curriculum/assessment	3*
Greater specialist assistance	3*

* = statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase,; "–" means a decrease.

Other issues raised by parents (2–4 percent each) were to have more teacher or principal accountability, to change the government's approach to society and education, to have more teacher aides to support teachers, to have a wider range of teaching styles used to suit individual children's different needs, to cut tertiary education costs, to have more support for Maori

children, more extension classes for gifted children, better information technology, more male teachers, more standardisation of assessment, and reduced paperwork for people in schools.

Teachers' suggestions for change also centred around resources, with attention to reducing workload by cutting back on curriculum, assessment, and reporting requirements. There was also scepticism coming through about the application to education of a competitive model based on business practice, as the next table shows.

Table 98

Teachers' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education

	1999 (n = 396) %
Decrease class sizes	25
Improve funding/resources	24
Move away from market/business model	12
Better funding/provision for special needs	12
Improve teachers' pay/working conditions	10*
Improve teachers' recognition/status/morale	9
Reduce workloads	8
Cut size of curriculum	7
Reduce paperwork	7
Reduce assessment/reporting	6
More training/professional development	6
Improve teacher education/quality	6
More non-contact time	5
Slow down pace of curriculum implementation	5*
Greater specialist assistance	4*
Ensure good quality education for all	3

* = statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Trustees remain concerned about education funding, although somewhat less so than in the 1996 responses (to open-ended questions). Like parents and teachers, they would welcome further reductions in class size; and they share a concern about special education funding.

Table 99

Trustees' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education

	1999 (n=376) %
Improve funding	22*
Decrease class sizes	16
Increase special needs funding/provision	11
Back to basics	9
Ensure quality education for all	7
Improve teacher education/quality	7
More support for education/valuing of education	7
Improve teachers' pay	6*
Reduce paperwork	5
More assessment of teachers	5

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "–" means a decrease.

Principals are also critical of the principles which seem to them to inform much of government educational policy, seeing them as insufficiently focused on aspects which are known to improve children's learning. The table below shows that there continues to be a call for more support for schools.

Table 100

Principals' Suggestions for Change to NZ Education

	1999 % (n=262)
Improve funding	30
Decrease class sizes/better teacher:pupil ratios	24
Improve teachers' pay/working conditions/workload	17
Education policy should be based on improving children's learning/educational needs, not politics/ideology	15
Reduce paperwork/compliance requirements	12
More specialist assistance for schools	11
More advisory support available for schools	11
Provide non-contact time for teachers/release time for principals	10
Government and government agencies to show more more appreciation of schools	10
Improve funding for special needs/learning assistance	9
Slow pace of change	7
More administrative support for schools	7
Provide ICT resources	6
Reduce resource gaps between schools	6
Increase professional development	6
Sabbatical leave for teachers	5
Move away from business model/competition between schools	3

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

What Should Be Given Priority By Government? The Schools' View

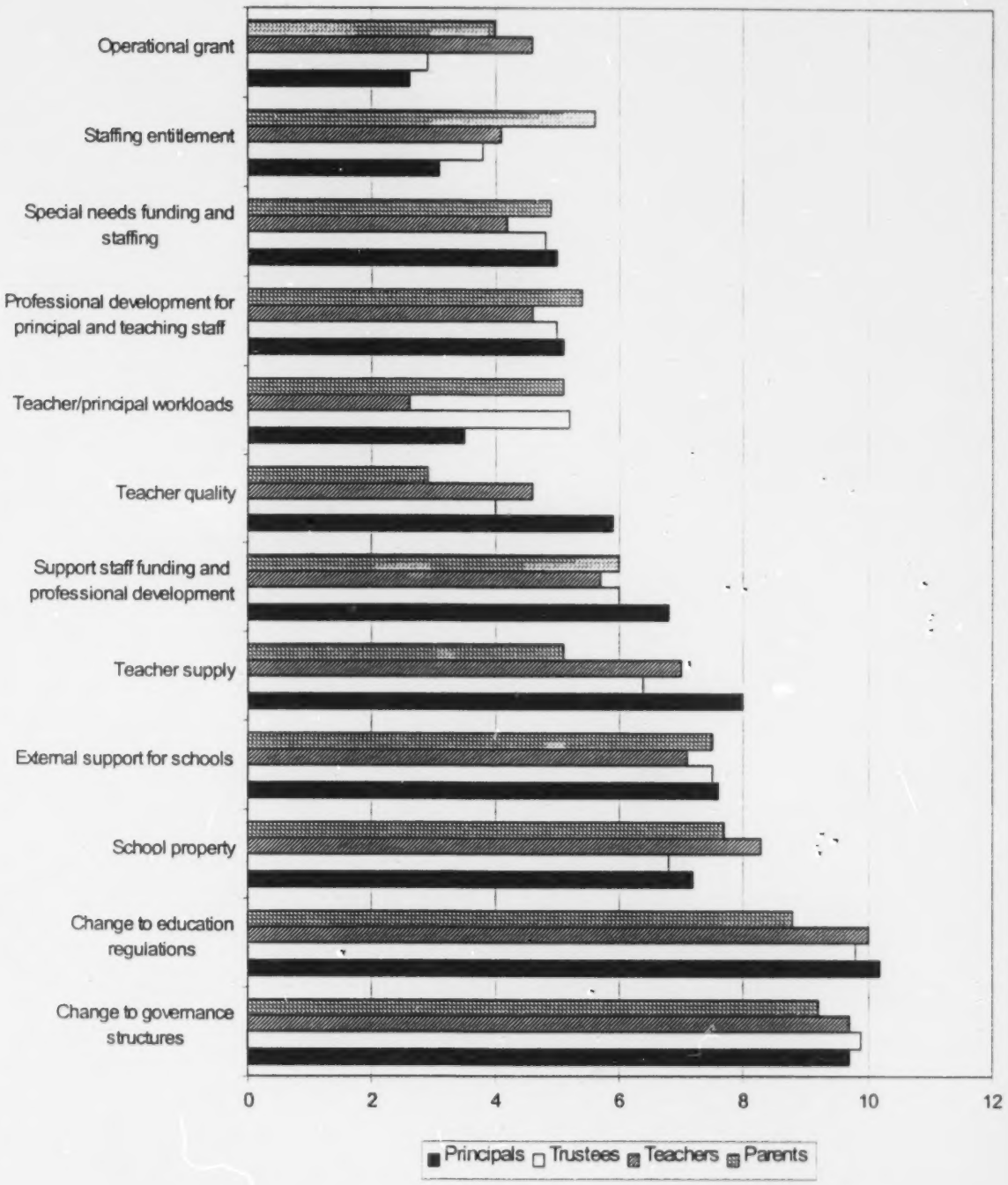
We asked all four groups who play a part in schools to rank 12 current issues in terms of their importance, and the priority they should be given by government. In the figure below, the average ranks are given. A ranking of 1 is the highest rank, and 12, the lowest.

Not surprisingly, resource issues dominate. Professional development, teacher and principal workloads, and teacher quality are the next group. The issues which have attracted government attention and policy development come last.

The four groups' views are often close to one another, but teachers and principals are the ones most concerned about workloads; parents are more concerned about teaching quality and teaching supply than school professionals and trustees; and principals and trustees more concerned about funding and staffing entitlements.

Figure 16

School Priorities for Government Attention to Education Issues



Summary

- Most principals had discussed their school resourcing with people at the Ministry of Education, and few had experienced problems in their relation with the Ministry of Education. Just over half the principals in this survey were satisfied with the Ministry of Education's support and advice for schools. They were less satisfied with its involvement of the education sector in policy development and change. Teachers show the lowest satisfaction levels with the Ministry of Education.
- People in schools would like the government to focus more on resourcing, workload, and school support issues than on changes to property or regulations, the current focus of government policy in relation to schools. Few knew much about the current review of regulations, although it had been described in the education sector's newsletters. Most were sceptical about what it would produce, fearing government cost-cutting, although some looked forward to reduced workloads or compliance.
- One of the areas to which people in schools would like government to give more attention is special needs provision. Half the principals had experienced problems with the recently introduced SE 2000 policy, which shifted more responsibility, and funding, to individual schools. Most of these problems are to do with resourcing.
- Just over three-quarters of their principals found their ERO reviews helpful. ERO reviews result more in minor than major changes to school practice, more so than in 1996 in areas which ERO has highlighted as the areas needing school attention: curriculum and assessment. So schools are heeding national emphases through the ERO review process, although more so for curriculum and assessment than for school self-review.

17 MORE OF THE SAME?

The More Things Change . . .

As the Picot committee was meeting in late 1987, a public opinion poll showed that the main issues in education—as far as the public was concerned—were shortage of funds, too few teachers, inadequate buildings, and inadequate equipment (Heylen, 1987). These resourcing issues, rather than the standard of education or the content of the curriculum, continue to head the list of changes to education people in schools would like to see. Workload issues have been added, reflecting the large increase in work hours for principals and teachers.

Just before the creation of boards of trustees, another national opinion poll found that only 15 percent of primary school parents (and 26 percent of secondary school parents) were not satisfied with the level of involvement parents could have in their child's school (Heylen, 1989). This survey found 11 percent of parents wanted to have more of a say in their child's school. But there has also been a decline in parental involvement since 1989, mainly attributable to parental employment and family income needs.

Parental satisfaction levels with the quality of their child's education were high as the reforms began. [22] They have not increased further. Nor have they declined.

One of the main aims of the reforms was to enhance Maori educational opportunity and achievement. While the decade has seen a flourishing of kura kaupapa Maori—albeit under-resourced—Maori are still more likely not to be able to access the school of their first choice, Maori students often underperform others, in both primary and secondary school, and their retention rate in secondary schools, while improving in the early 1990s, has since declined again (Minister of Education, 1999, pp. 81–87).

Children from low-income homes were also one of the intended beneficiaries of the reforms. Many of these attend low-decile schools. Students from these schools also underperform others (Minister of Education, 1999, p. 84; Wylie, Thompson, & Lythe, 1999, pp. 115–116). Low-decile and high-Maori-enrolment schools are also more likely to have gained least from the reforms, and may even have gone backwards, suffering falling rolls at a time when primary rolls were generally rising (although not in all regions), carrying additional administrative costs and—although in receipt of additional funding from government—drawing on fewer voluntary resources, and continuing to have lower parental involvement.

Thus the losers of the previous system remain the losers in the new.

The Picot committee found frustration and a sense of powerlessness among school staff in relation to decisions made by the then Department of Education. This survey finds that, while people in schools have more immediate say, which they enjoy, their perception is that central government agencies appear to many in schools to be facing in another direction from their own, insisting that schools take paths that they do not want to take, and taking insufficient account of school views and experiences.

---

[22] Teachers have also consistently polled high in occupational respect polls (Hunt,1999).

However, there is also cause for celebration:

- new partnerships have been formed through the boards of trustees and school professionals, partnerships which usually work well and constructively for the benefit of the students in particular schools.
- over time, the boards of trustees appear to be becoming more representative of parents as a whole in terms of ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic status.
- Parent satisfaction remains high. The majority of parents report that they get enough information about their child's progress. Though parents leave school decision making to school boards of trustees, few feel they need more say about what happens at the school.
- those who work for schools more often than not enjoy their work, and take pride in seeing students learn and achieve: this enjoyment and pride appear to override the high workloads required to make school self-management work
- the strong interest in continuing professional development, and the ways in which schools appear to balance local initiatives with national curriculum requirements.
- the gradual development of a focus on school development, and the integration of different aspects of school work so that they might better support each other in relation to school goals.

All these augur well for the future development of New Zealand education.

There are two questions suggested by this stocktaking of the achievements, costs, and continuing issues which the decentralisation of responsibility to schools has left either unchanged, or possibly changed for the worse.

- How can we harness the good things about school self-management, while ensuring that its costs and undesirable consequences are, if not halted, then subdued?
- What can we realistically expect of individual schools?

Harnessing the Promise of School Self-management

In the United States

In a study of self-managing schools in the US, only 10 percent of schools generated initiatives "that substantively change the curricular, instructional, or technological dimensions of the school" (Calhoun & Joyce, 1998, pp. 1292–1293). These schools had in common four aspects that differentiated them from the majority of self-managing schools:

- support from outside
- student learning as the heart of their school development work
- substantive staff development

- time provided for collegial activity to sustain innovations.

In England

England has also decentralised responsibility to school level while stepping up school accountability and seeking to widen parental choice. In their study of school improvement, Gray et al. (1999) found that many schools did not make discernible gains because they focused too much on making administrative changes, or took on too much at the same time. They also noted the results of ERO's English counterpart, OFSTED, study of schools which were making good progress to move out of "special measures" (targeted at schools classified as "failing" OFSTED inspections). Besides "vigorous action" to improve quality of teaching, student progress and achievement, and student behaviour, and having coherent action plans, the English schools were well supported by their local education authority, and received additional financial support from it.

What kind of school self-management do schools need to support school self-development?

In the research referred to above, responsibility for change is most directly located in individual schools. However, school self-management was not enough for positive change to occur. If we want schools to focus on improving student learning, then we need to consider the support and resources available to them. At present, government support is mostly targeted for a limited period of time to schools striking real problems, predominantly those with high Maori enrolment or low decile. Or it is translated into per-student or per-staff dollar terms and transferred to school budgets, as proposed, against the wishes of most in schools, for the much used and useful advisory service.

Throughout the past decade, a continuing focus of education policy has remained on the shift of money and responsibility to schools. Yet the evidence from the studies above is that this is not necessary for schools to take responsibility and improve student learning.

These studies also point to the criteria which could be used to develop and evaluate educational policy. Such criteria will be most useful if they are derived from empirical research on what helps sustainable and positive change in schools. Theories developed for other areas of economic or social provision are less useful.

It does not appear necessary for schools which satisfy parents and keep improving what they do to control all the resources they can access, nor that each board develops its own contractual arrangements with staff. This is not what people in schools want, nor what most feel they need.

Interest in bulk funding was low until substantial funding made it attractive to those schools which would benefit. The additional funding which has come with each form of bulk funding makes it hard to evaluate its impact in terms of the assumptions of ownership and control which lies behind it.

Fully funded schools in this study were likely to increase staffing, but did not use it any more flexibly than other schools; they had higher school fees and raised more money locally; they had younger, less experienced staff; and there were signs that teachers felt more distant from school management than in centrally funded schools. Yet fully funded schools were no more innovative,

and neither more nor less likely to be providing for different student needs, than centrally funded schools.

The ERO report just released shows that the performance of fully funded schools reviewed in 1999 was more likely to be satisfactory than those of the centrally resourced schools reviewed in the same period. This could be due to a number of reasons, including the over-representation of larger schools among fully funded schools.[23] However, the figures it gives for the proportion of schools on follow-up review, and their improvement, show no statistically significant differences between the two school types. [24]

What Can We Reasonably Expect of Schools?

At the start of the twentieth century Dewey gave a famous principle for American education: *what I want for my child, I should want for every child.* Henry Levin, the founder of the Accelerated Schools Movement in the US, which uses school development and problem-solving methods, drawing in parents as well as school staff to improve achievement of children in schools serving low-income areas, updated this for teachers: *the school I teach in is one I would want my child to attend.*

It is a truism that schools reflect society, and that schools cannot solve social problems, or remedy large inequalities. We know that educational achievement is most reflective of home resources and individual talent. Most of the research on school effectiveness shows that schools are minor partners, contributing around 15 percent to children's academic achievement, and that for some aspects of learning the aspect of school which matters is the peers it offers children, its social mix (Thrupp, 1999).

Yet we expect schools to make a difference for individual children, teaching them socially valued knowledge and skills, enlarging their capacity so that our social capacity is also enlarged.

How do we properly value schools so that those in them do all they can to counter any disadvantage without feeling that they are being asked to act heroically all the time, or neglect their own families? How do we make teaching at schools in low-income areas more attractive if teachers feel they are likely to be continuously criticised or called "failing" schools if they cannot match the achievement levels of students in schools in well-resourced areas?

---

[23] ERO (1999a) reports more small schools having unsatisfactory performance; Connelly (1999) found that schools with rolls of under 210 were more likely to be "failing" schools in terms of ERO reviews.

[24] ERO (1999c, pp 10-11). ERO provides figures only, without checking that the differences could have occurred by chance. In addition, an analysis it provides of the performance of 86 schools before and after their receipt of full-funding (p.9) is limited because it looks only at fully-funded schools. It is likely that the improvements it shows between the categories "satisfactory" and "good" would occur in any school, since, as the data in this survey show, ERO reviews do inspire schools to improve their performance on the aspects of importance to ERO.
Interestingly, the data show that the number of fully-funded schools in the poor category remained much the same before and after full-funding.

This evidence of this survey is that the regulations do not appear to be the obstacles that the regulatory review holds them to be. Nor are the curriculum statements, although they loom somewhat larger to people in schools than the regulations.

What people appear to need most is more non-teaching time; access to external support which would help their own school development efforts; and local, regional, and national avenues through which they can share approaches to common problems. It may also be important not to value innovation (or flexibility) for its own sake, since it can result in more "add-on" behaviour rather than the continual data-based refinement of what is already in place.[25]

But if competition for students (dollar resourcing) increases, as appears likely when primary school enrolment starts to drop from its current high levels, then it seems unlikely that there will be greater opportunity at the local level to share good ideas and problem-solving approaches, or provide support to those in other schools.

It would appear more fruitful for the next decade of self-managing schools if there was a wider review, as the Education Accord has requested. This review would be of most use if it included the sector from the start, and focused on a set of criteria based on improving teaching and learning. What should schools be held accountable for? How should their performance, or wellbeing, be monitored? What is the role of central government agencies? How should their performance be monitored? What is the value of further shifting resources to schools, what is the cost? Which policies will further increase competition between schools, despite its costs,[26] and which could minimise it so that schools can work more closely (and efficiently) with one another?

We probably need to acknowledge that it takes time to change schools, and that schools cannot focus equally well on everything at the same time. Contracts that seek large and sustainable changes in student achievement over a two- or three-year period are likely to result in frustration for all involved, or creative accounting.

What is needed is further slowing down of curriculum change, a time for consolidation, a time to provide a fruitful alignment of assessment with curriculum, and to look at whether we are asking for too much be covered in the curriculum.

We probably need to do more to see individual schools as part of a national system, in which central government departments provide real leadership. As things are currently structured, it is difficult for them to do so, particularly if those in schools are kept outside policy development. There is a legacy to overcome of people in schools feeling mistrusted and excluded, which has not surprisingly encouraged defensiveness and opposition rather than the co-ownership necessary to move to improve student learning throughout the system. Co-ownership: not just of the solutions (or the action, since no solution in education is permanent or total), but also of the difficulties.

---

25 Timperley et al. (1999) found that this was happening in the South Auckland schools involved in the *Strengthening Mangere-Otara* project.

26 I talk of costs because few benefits of competition have been empirically established in education (Wylie, 1998a, 1998c), and any benefits usually go to those who already have advantages (the "Matthew effect").

Twenty Years On?

If a major policy focus remains the achievement of a model of school self-government and accountability on the assumption that this is all that is needed to develop New Zealand's schools further, and improve the achievement of Maori students and those from poor homes, then the themes of a report of a similar survey to this carried out ten years from now are likely to remain much the same, though perhaps morale will be lower, and scepticism narrowed to cynicism. Present concerns that a greater emphasis on contracts conforming to the prevailing public sector model and national mandatory assessment presage recentralisation may well be confirmed.

But a rather different picture may be seen in ten years, showing real gains in children's achievement, if there is a real and open-minded willingness on the part of government and the government education agencies to revisit some of the key assumptions, in the company of people in schools.

REFERENCES

Boston, J. (1991). The theoretical underpinnings of public sector restructuring in New Zealand. In J. Boston, J. Martin, J. Pallot, & P. Walsh (Eds.), *Reshaping the state—New Zealand's bureaucratic revolution.* (pp. 1–26). Auckland: Oxford University Press.

Budge, D. (1997, June 27). Stars of Asia acknowledged. *Times Educational Supplement*, p. 17.

Bunting, C. (1999, October 22). Running up the down escalator. *Times Educational Supplement*, p. 24.

Butterworth, G., & Butterworth, S. (1998). *Reforming education: The New Zealand experience, 1984–1996.* Palmerston North: Dunmore Press.

Calhoun, E., & Joyce, B. (1998). Inside-out and outside-in: Learning from past and present school improvement paradigms. In A. Hargreaves, A. Lieberman, M. Fullan, and D. Hopkins (Eds), *International Handbook of Educational Change* (pp. 1286–1298). Dordrecht: Kluwer Aacdemic Publishers.

Cassie, F. (1999a, July 30). Rich schools agitate for more money. *NZ Education Review*, p. 1.

Cassie, F. (1999b, October 22). Capped funding equipment commitment to new primary property code. *NZ Education Review*, p. 5.

Connelly, M. (1999). School failure: Some possible remedies. *Public Sector 22*(3), 8–11.

Education Review Office (1998). *Report of Education Review Office 1997–98.* Wellington: Author.

Education Review Office. (1999a). *Small primary schools.* Education Evaluation Reports 1, Winter 1999. Wellington: Author.

Education Review Office. (1999b). *Departmental forecast report 1999/2000.* Wellington: Author.

Education Review Office (1999c). *Good practice in managing the fully funded option.* Wellington: Author.

ESRA (Economic and Social Research Associates). (1998). *Inflation and the operational funding of New Zealand schools.* Wellington: Author.

ESRA (Economic and Social Research Associates). (1999). *The finances of New Zealand schools: analysis of local funds 1994–1997.* Wellington: Author.

Fancy, H. (1999). Where to from here? An education perspective on fixing fragmentation. *Public Sector 22*(3), 19–21.

Gilmore, A. M. (1998). *Assessment for success in primary schools.* Christchurch: University of Canterbury, Education Department (report for the Ministry of Education).

Gray, J., Hopkins, D., Reynolds, D., Wilcox, B., Farrell, S., & Jesson, D. (1999). *Improving schools—performance and potential.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Harker, R., Gibbs, C. J., Ryan, H., Weir, K., and Adams, D. (1998). *Teacher 2000 project: An international study of teacher satisfaction, motivation, and health. The New Zealand report.* Palmerston North: Massey University College of Education.

Heylen Research Centre. (1987). *Public attitudes toward the NZ education system opinion poll.* Wellington: Author.

Heylen Research Centre. (1989). *Education administrative reform—parents'/public opinion poll.* Wellington: Author.

Huge increases in NZ LAT registrations. (1998, September 21). *Eduvac: The Education Weekly,* p. 1.

Hill, M. (1999). Assessment in self-managing schools: primary teachers balancing learning and accountability demands in the 1990s. *NZ Journal of Educational Studies* 34(1), pp. 86–98.

Hunt, G. (1999, January 22). Nurses, doctors take top spot in latest occupational respect list. *National Business Review.*

Lange, D. (1999). Clem Hill Memorial Lecture, 28 September, Massey University.

Lauder, H., Hughes, D., & Watson, S. (1999). The introduction of educational markets in New Zealand: Questions and consequences. *NZ Journal of Educational Studies 34*(1), 86–98.

Livingstone, I. D. (1999). *The workloads of primary teaching principals: A New Zealand survey.* Wellington: Chartwell Consultants.

Minister of Education. (1997). *New Zealand schools 1996.* Wellington: Ministry of Education.

Minister of Education. (1999). *New Zealand schools 98.* Wellington: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (1999). *Legislation for learning.* Wellington: Author.

Mitchell, D. (1999). Special education in New Zealand: A decade of change. *NZ Journal of Educational Studies 34*(1), pp. 199–210.

NZEI, Te Riu Roa. (1999). Special education—A way forward. Report to NZEI annual meeting.

OECD. (1998). *Education at a glance—OECD indicators.* Paris: Author.

Pratt, A. (1998). How schools use their special education grant. *The Research Bulletin,* 9, 1–8. Wellington: Ministry of Education, Research Division.

Rivers, J. (1999, October 8). Property next on bulk agenda. *NZ Education Review,* p. 4.

Robinson, D. (1999, May). Partnerships—practice and theory. *Institute of Policy Studies Newsletter,* 57, pp. 22–23.

Stockwell, W., & Duckworth, S. (1998). *"Drivers of Choice" and customer satisfaction with Christchurch secondary schools.* A. C. Nielsen report for the Ministry of Education.

Thrupp, (1999a). *Can schools make a difference? Lets be realistic!* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Thrupp, M. (1999b). (Ed.) *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies 34* (1).

Timperley, H., Robinson, V., & Bullard, T. (1999). *Strengthening education in Mangere and Otara evaluation. First evaluation report.* Ministry of Education, Wellington: Research Division.

Townsend, T. (1998). School self-management and effective education—compatible? In B. Webber (Comp.), *Effective school self-management—what's ahead? (*pp. 1–46). Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wilson, A. G., & McAlevey, L. G. (1999). *Do directly resourced schools differ?* Wellington: Ministry of Education, Research Division.

Wylie, C. (1997a). *At the centre of the web. The role of the New Zealand primary school principal within a decentralised education system.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wylie, C. (1997b). *The role of New Zealand school boards in 1997.* Wellington: New Zealand School Trustees Association.

Wylie, C. (1997c). *Self-managing schools seven years on—what have we learnt?* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wylie, C. (1998a). *Can vouchers deliver better education?* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wylie, C. (1998b). *Principal appointments 1997.* Report for the NZ Principals' Federation.

Wylie, C. (1998c). School self-management in New Zealand—how can it make a real difference? In B. Webber (comp.) *Effective school self-management—what's ahead?* (pp. 77–91). Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wylie, C. (1999). Is the land of the flightless bird the home of the voucherless voucher? *NZ Journal of Educational Studies, 34*(1), 99–109.

Wylie, C., & Chalmers, A. (1999). *Future Schooling in Palmerston North.* Report for the Ministry of Education.

Wylie, C., Thompson, J., & Lythe, C. (1999). *Competent children at 8—families, early education, and schools.* Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Wylie, C., & Wilkie, M. (forthcoming). *The effects for Maori of including teacher salaries in schools' operational grants.* Report for Te Puni Kokiri.

APPENDIX 1
CHARACTERISTICS OF SURVEY RESPONSES

Table 101
Principals

	1998 Ministry School Statistics %	1998 Sample School Statistics %	1999 Returns %
Type			
Full	54	56	55
Contributing	40	39	41
Intermediate	6	5	4
Size			
1–34	12	12	12
35–99	26	26	27
100–199	21	21	22
200–299	16	16	15
300–499	20	20	20
500+	6	5	5
Location			
Urban	46	46	47
Rural	38	38	40
Minor urban	10	10	8
Secondary urban	7	7	5
%Maori			
<8%	31	33	35
8–14%	17	15	16
15–29%	23	22	19
30%+	30	30	29
Funding			
Fully funded	26	26	27
Authority			
State	90	90	93
State-integrated	10	10	7
SES – Decile			
1–2	21	21	18
3–4	20	22	22
5–6	19	18	18
7–8	20	20	21
9–10	21	20	21
Returns			
N		349	262
%			75%

Table 102

Teachers

	1998 Ministry School Statistics %	1999 Sample School Statistics %	1999 Returns %
Type			
Full	54	56	50
Contributing	40	39	45
Intermediate	6	5	5
Size			
1–34	12	12	4
35–99	26	26	25
100–199	21	21	19
200–299	16	16	18
300–499	20	20	26
500+	6	5	9
Location			
Urban	46	46	53
Rural	38	38	30
Minor urban	10	10	11
Secondary urban	7	7	6
%Maori			
<8%	31	33	35
8–14%	17	15	17
15–29%	23	22	20
30%+	30	30	28
Funding			
Fully funded	26	26	29
Authority			
State	90	90	92
State-integrated	10	10	8
SES - Decile			
1–2	21	21	20
3–4	20	22	23
5–6	19	18	14
7–8	20	20	20
9–10	21	20	27
Returns			
N		749	396
%			53%

Table 103

Trustees

	1998 Ministry School Statistics %	1999 Sample School Statistics %	1999 Returns %
Type			
Full	54	56	56
Contributing	40	39	39
Intermediate	6	5	5
Size			
1–34	12	12	14
35–99	26	26	26
100–199	21	21	21
200–299	16	16	16
300–499	20	20	17
500+	6	5	5
Location			
Urban	46	46	40
Rural	38	38	44
Minor urban	10	10	9
Secondary urban	7	7	8
%Maori			
<8%	31	33	36
8–14%	17	15	15
15–29%	23	22	20
30%+	30	30	28
Funding			
Fully funded	26	26	28
Authority			
State	90	90	94
State-integrated	10	10	6
SES – Decile			
1–2	21	21	16
3–4	20	22	23
5–6	19	18	17
7–8	20	20	22
9–10	21	20	24
Returns			
N		698	376
%			54%

Table 104

Representativeness of Parental Response by School Characteristics

Characteristics	National Roll Figures 1998 %	Survey Respondents 1999 %
Location		
Urban	69	80
Rural	13	11
Minor urban	10	6
Secondary urban	8	4
%Maori		
<8%	30	40
8–14%	18	19
15–29%	25	18
30%+	24	23
Type		
Full	38	40
Contributing	50	36
Intermediate	13	24
Size		
1–34	1	3
35–99	8	7
100–199	16	12
200–299	19	22
300–499	40	22
500+	16	35
Decile		
1–2	23	21
3–4	10	22
5–6	23	18
7–8	24	17
9–10	21	23
Funding		
Fully funded	40	36
Centrally funded	60	64
Authority		
State	95	92
State-integrated	5	8

APPENDIX 2
SOURCES OF INFORMATION AND ADVICE

Table 105

School Sources of Information and Advice 1999(1)

Source (n=181)	Curriculum	Assessment Policy And Practice		Staff Development		Communication With Parents	
	1999 %	1990 %	1999 %	1990 %	1999 %	1990 %	1999 %
Advisers	97	52	71	96	97	35	24
Books, articles	91	57	54	82	79	43	24
School's own teachers	93	65	73	83	86	72	72
Other schools	61	-	39	-	39*+	-	16
Specialist Education Services	63	17	11	0	42	18	21
Cluster group	56	48	25	80	39	39	10
College of education	29*-	17	13	57	32*-	12	3
NZ Principals' Federation	53	22	9	51	32	15	8
NZEI	53	21	10	58	29	14	12
Ministry of Education	51	25	35	52	31	30	18
School community	44	20	13	38	14	54	37
Consultants	29	-	15	-	31	-	9
NZ School Trustees Association	33	8	5	30	12	16	14
Education Review Office	25	21	23	14	8	6	10
Kaumatua/kuia	14	-	1	-	6	-	8
University staff	17	4	5	0	20*+	-	-
Psychologists	-	20	2	-	-	-	-
No one	0	6	3	0	0	5	8
PTA[n]	-	-	-	-	-	-	34
Internet	46	-	8	-	24	-	3
Research	44		16		32		8

n=new question in 1996 survey

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 106

School Sources of Information and Advice 1999(2)

Source (n=181)	Individual Children's Problems		Special Needs Children		Treaty Of Waitangi Issues		Gender Equity Issues	
	1990 %	1999 %	1990 %	1999 %	1990 %	1999 %	1990 %	1999 %
Advisers	53	44	32	40*+	4	19	20	9
Cluster group	14	13	6	18*+	6	5	8	3
College of education	3	4	4	3	9	3	9	2
Books, articles	36	39	27	35*+	48	24	42	22
School's own teachers	82	72	52	68*+	47	35	45	43
NZEI	3	3	10	6	16	5	24	7
NZ Principals' Federation	3	4	6	3	7	2	10	4
NZ School Trustees Association	1	3	3	1	4	2	9	6
Education Review Office	1	3	5	3	5	6	9	6
Ministry of Education	14	13	24	23	19	10	22	13
School community	25	17	18	15	33	15	18	6
Specialist Education Services	56	76	47	74	0	2	2	1
Maori teachers	-	-	-	-	31	21	-	2
Local Maori community	-	-	-	-	47	27	-	-
Local marae	-	-	-	-	12	17	-	-
Kaumatua/kuia	1	6	-	3	-	18	-	1
Children's parents	85	78	36	68	-	-	10	5
Public health nurses	86	73	-	-	-	-	-	-
Visiting teacher	-	33	-	-	-	-	-	-
No one	-	0	17	2*-	11	29	23	33
Consultants	-	5	-	-	0	3	-	1
Other schools	-	19	-	8	-	3	-	5
Private providers	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	2
RTLBs		64		65		-		-
CYPs		54		35		-		-
Health professionals		63		51		-		-
Internet		5		3		1		1
Research findings		17		11		0		8

n=new question in 1996 survey

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Table 107

School Sources of Information and Advice 1999(3)

Source (n=181)	Building Maintenance 1990 %	Building Maintenance 1999 %	Finances 1990 %	Finances 1999 %
Advisers	11	10	11	14
Cluster group	20	5	32	3
College of education	2	0	6	0
Books, articles	16	8	20	13
School's own teachers	28	50	22	29
Private firms	58	62	38	40
Education service centre	50	28	46	42
Parents	64	39	39	13
Voluntary people	51	41	21	8
No one	4	1	1	3
Other schools	-	13	-	11
Board of trustees	-	73	-	70
Ministry of Education	-	73	-	-
PTA	-	-	-	10

n=new question in 1996 survey

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "–" means a decrease.

Table 108

School Sources of Information and Advice 1999 (4)
Staffing/Human Resources Management

	1999 %
NZEI	67
Ministry of Education	48
NZSTA	48
Principals' Federation	32
Consultant	20
Multiserve	19
ERO	17
Research findings	7
Employers' Federation	6

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 109

Teachers' Three Major Sources of Advice and Information

Sources (n=396)	Specific Curriculum Area	Teaching Methods	Assessment	Needs Of Students From Different Culture	Communi-Cation With Parents	School Management And Organisation	Conditions Of Employment
Advisers	58*-	48*-	48	25	8*-	18*-	5
Other teachers in school	65	67	63	51	69	64	46
Curriculum contract	42	20	21	-	-	-	-
Principal	23*-	26*-	42*-	21	72	85	74
Books and journals	40*-	32	25*-	18*-	8	9*-	8*-
Teachers in other schools	16*-	31*-	20*-	17*-	13	15	11
Teacher education providers	28*+	29*+	23*+	19*+	7	14	3
Assessment contract	7	5	16	-	-	-	-
Community contacts	1*-	1*-	1	18*-	14	1	1
NZEI	2	1	1	0	1	7	77
Trustees	0	0	0	1	7*-	22	15*-
Parents	0	1	1	26	36	2	0
Subject association	3	3	4	2	1	2	0
Private firm	1	1	1	0	-	1	0
Kaumatua/Kuia	-	-	-	12	-	-	-
None	1	1	1	12	4	2	2
ERO	1	0	3	0*-	1	5	-
NZSTA	-	-	-	-	-	2	5
Internet[n]	5	2	2	0	0	0	0
Research findings[n]	6	7	5	7	3	2	1
Other	2	4	2	4	3	3	1

n=new question in 1999 survey

*=statistically significant changes from comparable answers in previous years; "+" means an increase, "-" means a decrease.